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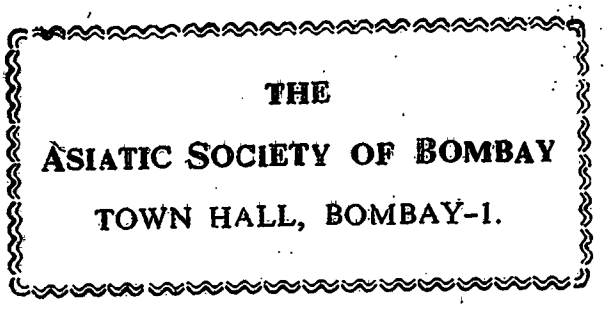

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THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

BY

SIR WILLIAM WILSON HUNTER, K.C.S.I.,
C.I.E., B.A., LL.D.

ADDITIONAL MEMBER OF THE VICEROY'S LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL, AND DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF STATISTICS TO THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA;

VICE-CHANCELLOR OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALCUTTA; HONORARY OR FOREIGN MEMBER OF THE ROYAL INSTITUTE OF NETHERLANDS INDIA AT THE HAGUE, OF THE INSTITUTO VASCO DA GAMA OF PORTUGUESE INDIA, OF THE DUTCH SOCIETY IN JAVA, AND OF THE ETHNOLOGICAL SOCIETY, LONDON; HONORARY FELLOW OF THE PUNJAB UNIVERSITY; ORDINARY FELLOW OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY, THE ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY, ETC.

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IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

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INDIA.

VOLUME XIII.

Sirohi.—Native State in the Rájputána Agency under the Government of India, lying between lat. 24° 22′ and 25° 16′ N., and between long. 72° 22′ and 73° 18′ E. Estimated area, 3020 square miles. Population (1881) 142,903 souls. Sirohi is bounded on the north by Márwár or Jodhpur, on the east by Mewár or Udaipur, on the south by Pálanpur and the Mahi Kántha States of Edar and Danta, and on the west by Jodhpur.

Physical Aspects.—The country is much intersected and broken up by hills and rocky ranges. The main feature is Mount ABU, the highest peak of which rises 5653 feet above sea-level; it is situated at the extremity of the ARAVALLI MOUNTAIN chain, being partially separated from the main range by a narrow valley. That range, running from south-west to north-east, divides the State into two not very unequal portions. The western half is comparatively open and level, and more populous and better cultivated than the other. Both portions, being situated at the foot of the hill range, are intersected by numerous watercourses or *nálás*, which become torrents of greater or less volume in the rainy season, but are dry during the remainder of the year. From the line of water-parting the streams discharge into the rivers Loni and Banás. The lower slopes of the Aravalli range in Sirohi are cl[illegible] with dense forest; and the country generally is dotted with [illegible] hills, which, as a rule, are thickly covered with jungle, [illegible] of the *dhao* tree (Anogeissus pendula) mixed [illegible] Catechu), *babúl* (Acacia arabica), *ber* (Zizyp[illegible]

The only river of any importance is t[illegible]

as the hot season commences, and only deep pools are then to be found. It is subject, during the rains, to occasional floods; but these rapidly subside, leaving the stream fordable and the water clear and good. The Banás, rising in the Aravalli Hills, flows through the State into Gujarát, and after passing the cantonment of Dísa, is finally lost in the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh). There are rémains of many fine artificial lakes in Sirohi, but no lakes or *jhíls* at present exist, with the exception of the Nakhi Taláo on Mount Abu. The nature of the subsoil of Sirohi appears, as a rule, to be unsuited to the artificial storage of water, for in the village tanks the water generally subsides very rapidly after the end of the rainy season. The depth at which water is found below the surface varies a good deal in different parts of the State. Thus, in the north-east, the wells are from 90 to 100 feet deep, and the water is generally brackish. In the north-west, water is more easily found, at from 70 to 90 feet; while in the eastern Districts, water of good quality is found at depths varying from 15 to 60 feet, the depth required to be sunk decreasing towards the south. In the western Districts, the depth of the wells is generally 60 to 70 feet; and at Sirohi town, and in its neighbourhood, water is often scarce and of inferior quality.

The geological formation of the Aravalli range is granite overlying blue slate. The valleys exhibit variegated quartz and schistose slate. Rocks of gneiss and syenite appear at intervals. At the south-east corner of Sirohi, the Aravalli range takes a sweep to the south-west, enclosing a hilly tract called the *bhakar*. In this tract the rocks are primitive and metamorphic, with schists and limestone. Mica is found in large quantities. Near the village of Jariwáo, on the south-eastern frontier of the State, are the marble quarries of that name, from which the celebrated Jain temples of Abu are said to have been built. The granite of Abu is used to a considerable extent for building, and the blue slate which underlies the granite is well adapted for paving and other purposes. It is said that a copper-mine was formerly worked in the hilly range above the town of Sirohi.

Although a considerable portion of Sirohi is covered with tree and bush jungle, the forests, strictly speaking, may be considered as confined to the slopes of Abu and the belt of forest round its base. In the *bhakar*, there are here and there hills and valleys well wooded with [redacted]ble timber, such as the *timru* or ebony (Diospyros Ebenum), [redacted]Cordia Macleodii), *siris* (Albizzia Lebbek), *huldru*, the large

On the slopes of Abu a great variety of trees and [redacted]he most common are the bamboo, mango, *siris*, [redacted] (Eugenia Jambolana), *kachnar*, etc.

[redacted]stroy a great number of cattle. Bears

numerous, till the great famine of 1868–69, during which numbers of them either died, or were killed by the Bhils for food. Antelopes are scarce, but *chikara* (ravine deer) and the four-horned deer are to be found in parts. Field rats are abundant in the sandy portions of the State. Hares are very common. The grey partridge abounds, the painted and black partridge are rare. Quail of several kinds and sand-grouse are everywhere met with. Florican visit the country for a short time during the rains. Jungle and spur fowl are found in the hilly parts of the State. The fish are few and almost entirely confined to the Bańás river; they are chiefly the *rohu*, *murrel*, *pari*, and *chilwa*.

History.—The present ruling family of Sirohi are Deora Rájputs, a branch of the great Chauhán clan, and claim to be directly descended from Deo Ráj, a descendant of Prithwi Ráj, the Chauhán King of Delhi. The earliest known inhabitants of Sirohi were the Bhíls. The first Rájputs to settle in the country were the Gehlots. They were soon followed by the Pramara Rájputs, who appear to have been a powerful race, and to have had their capital at Chandrawati. The ruins of this place prove it to have been at one time a large and flourishing city.

The Pramaras were succeeded by the Chauhán Rájputs, who seem to have first established themselves in the country about 1152 A.D., but who only dispossessed the Pramaras after a long series of years and much fighting. The Pramaras are said to have taken up their last refuge on Mount Abu, where remains of extensive fortifications are still to be seen. Being unable to drive them from their stronghold, the Deora Chauháns had recourse to stratagem. They sent a proposal that the Pramaras should bring twelve of their daughters to be married into the Chauhán tribe, and thus establish a friendship. The proposal being accepted, the story runs that the twelve girls were accompanied to Bhadeli, a village near the southern border of Sirohi, by nearly all the Pramaras. The Chauháns then fell upon them, massacred the majority, and pursuing the survivors back to Abu, gained possession of that place. It is said that the descendants of Pramaras now inhabit Abu, and, in memory of this act of treachery, never allow their daughters to go down to the plains to be married.

During the reign of Sains Mall (about 1425 A.D.), the Ráná Kambají of Chittor obtained permission to take refuge at Achilgarh on Mount Abu, when flying from the Mughal Emperor. On the retreat of the imperial army, the son of Sains Mall sent word to the Ráná to return to his own country; but the latter, having found what a strong [illegible] Abu was, refused to leave, and had eventually to be [illegible] force. In consequence of this, no other Rájá was [illegible] to Abu; and this custom remained in force [illegible] the intervention of Colonel Spiers [illegible]

Sirohi), Maháráná Jawán Singh of Udáipur was permitted to proceed to Abu on a pilgrimage to the temples. Since then the prohibition has been withdrawn, and many chiefs of Rájputána have visited Abu.

During the early years of the present century, the State of Sirohi suffered much from wars with Jodhpur, and the constant marauding of the wild Miná tribes. The State became too weak to protect its subjects. Many of the Thákurs in the south threw off their allegiance, and placed themselves under the protection of Pálanpur; and the Sirohi State was nigh being dismembered. Under these circumstances, in 1817, Ráo Sheo Singh, then Regent, sought the protection of the British Government. Captain Tod was at that time the Political Agent in Western Rájputána; and after making close inquiry into the history and relations of the two States, he disallowed the pretensions of Jodhpur to suzerainty over Sirohi.

In 1823, a treaty was finally concluded between the British Government and the Sirohi State. Many of the Thákurs were in rebellion, supported by the wild Minás of the hills; but they were eventually reduced to submission. Ráo Sheo Singh did good service during the Mutiny of 1857, in consideration of which he received a remission of half his tribute, which is now fixed at £688. The Ráo of Sirohi in 1845 made over to the British Government some lands on Mount Abu, for the establishment of a sanitarium. The present Ráo is named Kesari Singh; he is entitled to a salute of 15 guns, and holds a *sanad* giving rights of adoption.

Population.—The Census of 1881 returned the population of Sirohi State at 142,903, residing in 1 town and 365 villages, and occupying 30,532 houses. Males 76,132, and females 66,771; proportion of males, 53·3 per cent. According to the religious classification, Hindus number 123,633, or 86·5 per cent.; Jains, 16,137, or 11·3 per cent.; Muhammadans, 2935; Christians, 179; and 'others,' 19. The State contains a considerable number of Bráhmans (13,288) and religious mendicants. The Baniyás and Mahájans (17,317) form a very numerous class; they are mostly Oswals and Porewals, followers of the Jain religion. The Rájputs (13,466) are divided into twelve different clans, or septs of clans. They are the dominant race, although not numerically the largest class. The greater portion are Deora Chauháns; next in order come the Sesodia and Rahtor clans, who are about equal in number. Rájputs, who are not *jágírdárs* or the immediate relatives of *jágírdárs*, gain their living as State servants, soldiers, and cultivators; [illegible]ng to the *diwali band*, or protectors of the villages, and culti[illegible]d-tax. Kalbis, Rabaris, and Dhers are also numerous. [illegible] tribes of half-blood, including Bhíls, Girasiás, and [illegible] section of the population. The Girasiás are [illegible]or hilly tract in the south-east corner

of Sirohi. They were formerly great plunderers, but have now settled down to agriculture. They are said to be the descendants of Rájputs, married to Bhíl women. Minás and Bhíls have always been troublesome races, with a hereditary taste for plundering. Speaking generally, the Minás may be said to occupy the north, and the Bhíls the western part of Sirohi. There are some Kolís who are believed to have immigrated from Gujarát. They have now settled down as cultivators, and are principally found in the eastern and southern districts. The Musalmáns mostly consist of *tahsíldárs* and sepoys, and a few colonies of Cutch (Kachchh) Bohras at Madar and Sirohi. The language of Sirohi is a patois of Márwári and Gujaráti.

Agriculture, etc.—The principal spring crops (*rabi*) are wheat, barley, gram, and mustard (Brassica campestris), from which a kind of oil is prepared, much used by the people. Wheat and barley are the staple crops; on these being reaped, many of the fields are at once ploughed up and sown with two kinds of small grain called *karáng* and *chaina*, which come to maturity very quickly, and are cut before the rains set in. Manure is used every second or third year; but no rotation of crops is practised, the same land being sown with wheat or barley year after year. The chief rain crops (*kharíf*) are Indian corn, *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), *mung* (Phaseolus Mungo), *moth* (Phaseolus aconitifolius), *arad* (Phaseolus Mungo, var. radiatus), *kulath* (Dolichos biflorus), and *gúar* (Cyamopsis psoralioides). Cotton and *ambari* or *san* (Hibiscus cannabinus), a kind of hemp, are grown in small quantities for local consumption. *Til*, *kuri* (Sesamum indicum), *kuri* (Panicum miliaceum), *basthi*, *kudra*, *mal*, and *sainwalai* are only grown in *walar* cultivation, *i.e.* by cutting down and burning the jungle on the hill-sides, and sowing the seed in the ashes. This mode of cultivation is very popular with the wild tribes of Girasiás, Bhíls, and Minás, and has proved most destructive to the Aravalli forests. There is so much land in the State yet remaining uncultivated that the grazing grounds are very extensive.

The agricultural tenures in Sirohi correspond with those generally prevailing throughout Rájputána. The ruler is the actual and sole owner of the land conquered by his ancestors. Those that came with him were granted portions of the conquered territory, on certain conditions of fealty and military service, and became his *umras* or nobles; but the ruler still retained the ownership or *bhúm* of the land. To this there are of course exceptions; and the Girasiás, the original inhabitants of the *bhakar*, still retain their *bhúm* rights. The cultivators generally are hereditary tenants, and cannot be ejected so long as they pay the revenue regularly; in fact, in such a sparsely populated country as Sirohi, the cultivator is too valuable to be parted with. There is a large class in Sirohi called the *diwali band*, consisting of Rájputs, Bhíls,

Minás, and Kolís, who cultivate land rent-free. The safety of the village is in their hands, and they are bound to protect it. Bráhmans, Charans, and Bhats also cultivate their land free, out of respect for their religious duties.

In all the *jágír* estates the State receives a portion of the land revenue and local taxes. The rates vary, but in the principal estates Rájputs pay three-eighths of the produce, and in others one-half. The cultivators get from two-thirds to three-fourths of the produce of the crops, after deducting the *haks* (dues) of the village servants, as blacksmiths, carpenters, etc. In some portions, especially to the north, the State and *jágírdárs'* shares of the rain crops are collected by a tax on the ploughs, varying from 4s. to 8s. a plough.

The gross revenue of the State in 1881–82 amounted to £14,924. Since then a new source of income has been secured in the increased rate of opium duty, which has been assimilated to that prevailing in Márwár.

Natural Calamities.—Sirohi frequently suffers from drought. The years 1746, 1785, 1812, 1813, and 1868–69 are recorded as having been years of terrible famine. It is calculated that in the latter year 75 per cent. of the cattle perished. The distress was much increased and prolonged by a visitation of locusts, which destroyed a great portion of the rain crops.

Education, Communications, etc.—Education is but little sought after. There are vernacular schools at the three principal towns, Sirohi, Rohera, and Madar. In many of the villages, boys of the Baniyá class are taught to write and keep accounts by the village *jatti*. A dispensary is supported by the State at the town of Sirohi. There are post-offices at Erinpura, Sirohi, Anadra, Abu road station, and Abu. The main road through the State is that from Ajmere, through Márwár, Sirohi, Pálanpur, and the Gáekwár's territory, to Ahmadábád. This road enters Sirohi at Erinpura; and passing through the capital and along the western side of Abu, leaves the State again about 2 miles south of Madar, which is about 26 miles from the cantonment of Dísa. The Rájputána-Málwá Railway, constructed on the metre gauge, which runs through the length of this State, passing just east of Mount Abu, was opened in December 1880.

There is a jail at Sirohi. Criminal suits are tried by the minister at the capital, and by *tahsíldárs* at the head-quarters of districts. There are no other courts in Sirohi; all civil suits are settled by *panchávats*, or village assemblies. The military force of the State consists of 2 guns, 108 cavalry, and 500 foot-soldiers.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sirohi is, on the whole, dry and healthy; and there is a general freedom from epidemic diseases, which is doubtless in a measure due to the sparseness of the population. The

heat is never so intense as in the North-Western Provinces or the Punjab; but on the other hand, the cold season is of much shorter duration, and less bracing. In the southern and eastern districts there is usually a fair amount of rain; but over the rest of the State, the rainfall is frequently scant. This is chiefly due to Mount Abu and the Aravalli Hills attracting the clouds driven inland by the south-west monsoon; thus at Abu the average annual rainfall is about 64 inches, while at Erinpura, less than 50 miles distant in a northerly direction, the average fall is only between 12 and 15 inches. The prevailing wind is south-westerly. The principal diseases are malarious fever and ague, complicated with enlargement of the spleen. Dysentery often occurs at the close of the rains, and during the early part of the cold season, especially in the jungle tracts round the base of Abu.

Sirohi.—Capital of the Native State of Sirohi, Rájputána; situated in lat. 24° 53′ 12″ N., and long. 72° 54′ 28″ E., 28 miles north of Abu road station on the Rájputána-Málwá Railway, and 171 miles from Ajmere. Population (1881) 5699, namely, Hindus 5129, and Muhammadans 570. Manufacture of sword-blades, daggers, spears, and knifes.

Sirol.—Western suburb of Benares City.—*See* SIKROL.

Sironchá (*Sironcha*).—Town in Sironcha *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 18° 51′ N., and long. 80° 1′ E., on the left bank of the Pranhítá river, 2 miles above its confluence with the Godávari, and 120 miles south-south-east of Chándá town. Population (1881) 3476, namely, Hindus, 2961; Muhammadans, 452; and Christians, 63. The public buildings and houses of the European officials stand on a ridge formerly covered with dense jungle, which slopes gradually northwards down to the village. The summit commands a fine view of the Pranhítá, where it winds round a high bluff of sandstone, crowned by a ruined fort, built 160 years ago by direction of Wáli Haidar, a holy man, whose tomb within is held sacred. Sironchá has no manufactures, and little trade, except in articles of local consumption. The town contains English and Telugu schools. The soil is sandy, and the drainage good.

Sironj.—*Parganá* and town in Tonk State, Rájputána, under the control of the Bhopal Agency of Central India; situated in lat. 24° 6′ 23″ N., and long. 77° 43′ 30″ E., 78 miles north-west of Ságar (Saugor), and 140 north-east of Ujjain. Population (1881) 11,356, namely, males 5625, and females 5731. Hindus number 7383; Muhammadans, 3895; and 'others,' 78. Sironj is built at the foot of a pass connecting Málwá with the table-land to the north. It was once a large town, famed for its muslins and chintzes, but is now much decayed. One fine *bázár* still remains, and there are many mosques. Good water is abundant. 'Sironj, with the appertaining *parganá*,' writes Thornton, 'was in 1798

granted to Amír Khán by Jaswant Ráo Holkar; in 1809, the threatening attitude assumed towards Nágpur by Amír Khán led to the advance upon Sironj of a British force under Colonel Close; subsequently, in 1817, this town and district, with other territories, were guaranteed by the British Government to the Amír.'

Sírpur.—Chief town of Sírpur *parganá*, Basim District, Berar. Lat. 20° 10′ 30″ N., long. 77° 1′ E. Population (1867) 3555; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. Here is the shrine of Antariksh Párasnáth, one of the most sacred resorts of the Jains. The tradition is, that Yelluk, a Rájá of Ellichpur, found the idol on the banks of a river, and his prayers for permission to transport it to his own city were granted on condition of his not looking back. At Sírpur, however, his faith became weak, and he looked back. The idol instantly became immovable, and it thus remained suspended in mid-air for many years. Here still exists a small but ancient Jain temple or shrine, having a covered roof with pendants richly carved. Post-office, first-grade vernacular school, and police station.

Sirsá. — British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 29° 13′ and 30° 33′ N. lat., and between 73° 56′ and 75° 22′ E. long. Area, 3004 square miles. Population (1881) 253,275 souls. Sirsá is a District of the Hissár Division. It is bounded on the north-east by the District of Firozpur and the Native State of Patiála, on the west by the river Sutlej (Satlaj), on the south-west by the Native States of Baháwalpur and Bíkaner (Bickaneer), and on the east by the District of Hissár. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of SIRSA.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Sirsá is intermediate, both in geographical position and in physical features, between the barren desert of Bíkaner and the sandy but cultivated plains of the cis-Sutlej States. It forms for the most part a bare and treeless plateau, stretching from the valley of the little river Ghaggar on the east to the main stream of the Sutlej on its north-western border. Near the village tanks, a few straggling bushes may be seen; but, as a rule, the monotony of the view is rarely broken by any larger vegetation. In the immediate neighbourhood of the Sutlej, however, is a fertile alluvial tract (*hitár*, corresponding to the *khádar* of the North-Western Provinces), intersected by branches of the river, and flooded by their overflow during the rainy season. The surrounding tracts, rising by an abrupt bank from this favoured region, are irrigated for the autumn crops by means of temporary wells. Eastward of the *hitár* lies the sandy central table-land, which used to be chiefly employed for purposes of pasturage, but is now being rapidly brought under the plough. Formerly the District was covered by excellent grazing grasses, one of the best of which was that known as *dhámun;* but these are now disappearing

with the increase of cultivation and consequent necessity for closer grazing, as the cattle eat down the heads before they have time to seed. East of this central plateau lies the valley of the Ghaggar, in which rich crops of rice and wheat are grown. Southward of the Ghaggar, again, spreads a barren sandy tract, beyond the reach of its fertilizing inundations, and of small agricultural value. Viewed as a whole, the District of Sirsá lay desert and abandoned until the British occupation; and although colonization has since proceeded rapidly, bringing most of the soil into a state of comparative cultivation, it is only in the valleys of the Sutlej and the Ghaggar that rich crops and valuable pasturage are to be found. The general slope of the country is from north-east to south-west, from the Himálayas towards the sea, with a general fall of about 1¼ foot per mile.

The Sutlej, which forms the north-western boundary, is nowhere fordable at any time of the year; and in the rainy season, when swollen by the melted snows of the Himálayas, and the drainage of the low country, its current is broad, deep, and rapid, and its floods spread far inland over the alluvial soil which forms its present valley, extending about 4 or 5 miles on the Sirsá side of the main stream. The inundation is assisted by the numerous irrigation cuts and branches which intersect the alluvial tract. The actual bed of the present main stream is broad and sandy. From the configuration of the country, it is evident that at one time the Sutlej flowed beneath the foot of the Danda, a clearly marked bank some 12 miles to the east of its present channel, which is a continuation of a similar bank in Firozpur District.

The Ghaggar, which rises as a mountain torrent in the lower Himálayan hills, receives the waters of the Saraswatí (Sarsuti) in Patiála State, enters Sirsá District a few miles south of Rori, and passing 4 miles north of Sirsá town, is finally lost in the desert of Bíkaner, about 290 miles from its source. Within Sirsá District, although the Ghaggar is generally confined to a comparatively narrow bed between steep banks, and with a depth in the rains of from 8 to 10 feet, yet here and there its banks recede, and leave a broad and shallow channel, or the stream overtops the banks and floods the neighbouring land. At Chánmal, 3 miles north-west of Sirsá town, the channel expands into a shallow lake (*chhamb* or *jhíl*) about 3 miles long by half a mile in breadth. It then contracts for a short distance, and again at Dhanúr it fills another depression about 3 miles long by half a mile broad, but seldom anywhere more than 4 feet deep. Again, after 2 miles of narrow channel is another lake, the Annakal *chhamb*, about 5 miles long by 2 miles broad and only about 3 feet deep. Below this lake a branch turns off southwards towards Ellenábád, and fills a considerable depression among the sandhills south of that town.

Between the Ghaggar and the Sutlej the plain is crossed in the same general direction, from north-east to south-west, by five old drainage channels, now completely dry. These drainage lines are too narrow and shallow to have ever carried any important volume of water, and they are evidently the channels of rainy season torrents from the Ambála hills. It is supposed that their waters were diverted by ill-constructed irrigation dams, which checked their courses through the dead level of the Karnál plains; while the deposit of silt thus caused has prevented them from pushing their way in future across the barriers, stopping their natural channels. Another hypothesis to explain the existence of these now dry drainage channels, is a gradual up-rising of the whole watershed of the Indus and the Ganges systems outside the Himálayas—an hypothesis supported by the undoubted fact that the Jumna has within a recent period moved eastwards, while the Sutlej and other Punjab rivers have moved considerably to the west.

For assessment purposes, Sirsá District is divided into five circles, each with different physical capabilities, as follows:—(1) The *Bágar*, the sandy tract south of the Ghaggar valley, characterized by the lightness of its sandy soil, and the prevalence of shifting sandhills. It is considered by the people a portion of the great *bágar* tract, which includes part of the south-west of Hissár District, and almost the whole of the north of Bíkaner territory. (2) The *Náli*, or Ghaggar valley, including the Sotar valley with its hard alluvial clay soil, and the present valley of the Ghaggar, with the villages enclosed between the two valleys, and the neighbouring high land belonging to the Ghaggar villages or enclosed between them and the boundary of the District. These high lands are exactly similar on the one side to the sandy soil of the *bágar*, and on the other to the loam of the *rohi*, but are for convenience of boundary included within the *náli* belt. (3) The *Rohi*, or great dry tract, the level tract of light loam stretching from the Ghaggar valley to the Danda, or old bank of the Sutlej, and known to the people as the *rohi* (dry country) or *jangal* (prairie, bush, or backwoods). (4) The *Utár*, or upper belt between the Danda and the present Sutlej valley, a tract of light sandy soil with an admixture of river sand now beyond the reach of the Sutlej floods. (5) The *Hitár*, or lower belt of alluvial soil, subject to inundation from the Sutlej.

Wild animals and large game generally are extremely scarce. Tigers were formerly found in the neighbourhood of the Sutlej, and the wild ass on the prairies of the *rohi* or dry tract; but they both disappeared about 30 years ago. The wild hog has also become extinct. The most common game are ravine deer and antelope, which do great damage to the standing crops, especially in the neighbourhood of the Bíkaner border, where they literally swarm. Hares are common in the Ghaggar valley, and jackals are found in small numbers near the town. Of

winged game, sand-grouse, *kunj*, florican, water-fowl, and wild duck are abundant in the cold weather.

History.—As Sirsá formed a part of the Bhattiána territory, its early history is identical with that of HISSAR DISTRICT. The old town, whose ruins lie near the present head-quarters station, is said to have been founded thirteen centuries ago. Numerous ruined mounds (*thehs*) mark the sites of villages, which rose, flourished, and perished at different periods for probably thousands of years. During the 18th century, the country appears to have been held by Musalmán tribes claiming a Rájput origin, of whom the chief were Jaiyas about Bhatner and Bhattis about Rániá, Sirsá, and Fathábád. The Bhattis were for a time the most important and powerful tribe in this neighbourhood; and the name Bhatti was then, and is still, applied not only to the Bhattis proper, but to Jaiyas, Chauháns, Cháhals, and other Rájput tribes quite distinct from the Bhattis, and even to Musalmán Játs. The country came from them to be called Bhattiána, a name which it retained until 1857. These Musalmán tribes lived a pastoral and predatory life, driving about their cattle in search of pasture, and carrying off their neighbours' cattle when they had a chance. Their hand was against every man, and every man's hand against them. The Bíkaner annals tell of incessant struggles of the Hindu Rájputs of that State with the Jaiyas and Bhattis for the possession of Bhatner and sometimes of Sirsá; and the chronicles of Patiála are full of raids and counter-raids between the Sikh Játs and their hereditary foes the Bhattis.

In 1731 A.D., Alá Singh, the founder of the Patiála State (still known to the Sikh Játs as Alá-ká-Ráj, or Alá's kingdom), commenced a struggle with the Bhatti chiefs of Bhatner and Fathábád which lasted for his lifetime; and in 1774 his successor Amar Singh made an expedition against the Bhatti chief Muhammad Amír Khán, took from him Fathábád, Sirsá, and Rániá, and became master of almost the whole country now included in Sirsá District. Under Alá Singh and Amar Singh, the Sikh Játs established some villages along what is now the north-east border of the District; but the great famine of 1783 drove them back and laid the whole country waste. The herds of cattle which roamed over the prairie perished of thirst and starvation, and numbers of the population must also have died of famine. The survivors fled to more favoured tracts, and the town of Sirsá was wholly deserted. Only ten or twelve of the larger villages held out, and for a time almost the whole of the District must have been a desert. In 1799 the adventurer George Thomas, whose head-quarters were first at Georgegarh in Rohtak District and afterwards at Hánsi in Hissár District, established some authority over the Ghaggar valley, and allied with the Bhattis took a fort belonging to

the Mahárájá of Bíkaner near Bhatner. On the defeat of Thomas by Bourquin at Hánsi in 1802, the whole of this tract was held to have come under the power of the Maráthás; and in 1803, after the battle of Laswári, Sindhia by the treaty of Sirji Anjengáon ceded Sirsá along with the Delhi territory on this side the Jumna to the British.

When the District first passed into our hands in 1803, it was found almost entirely uninhabited. The Bhattis were lords of the soil; but they tilled little or none of the country, and only used it as a site for their scattered forts, from which bands of marauders made occasional raids into the surrounding regions. Sirsá was officially included in the territory conquered from the Maráthás in 1803, but for some years it was not directly governed by British officers, and the Bhattis remained practically in undisturbed possession until 1818, when the Ghaggar valley came directly under British rule. It was included in the northern province of the Delhi territory, and in 1820 formed part of the District of Hariána or Hissár. During the years that followed, the Sikh Rájás, taking advantage of British neglect and the waste condition of the dry tract beyond the Ghaggar, began a series of irregular colonizations, which continued uninterrupted till the year 1837. The British Government then asserted its supremacy over the dry tract, which was resumed, and together with the valley of the Ghaggar was made into a separate District under the name of Bhattiána and attached to the North-Western Provinces. A stream of immigration set in, and continued so long as any portion of the land remained unoccupied; and every inducement was offered by the landowners to immigrant cultivators who settled on their demesnes. Additions were made to the territory by other resumptions from encroaching Native States, in 1844, 1847, and 1855.

Shortly after the organization of the District in 1837, a fiscal settlement of the *parganás* then composing it was undertaken, and remained in force until 1852, when a new general settlement was effected. This was interrupted by the Mutiny of 1857, a detailed account of which will be found in the article on HISSAR DISTRICT. After the suppression of the Mutiny, Sirsá became, in 1858, a portion of the Punjab; and the settlement was continued and completed in 1862 under orders from that government. Only at the latter date can the colonization be considered as final; but the whole area was then parcelled out into estates, and every acre has now its owner. Since the British occupation, the towns have grown to a considerable size; and the modern station of Sirsá, founded by the Superintendent of Bhattiána in 1837, has now a population of over 12,000 persons, with a thriving trade in grain and sugar.

Population.—No accurate statistics exist with reference to the num-

ber of inhabitants earlier than the Census of 1868; but in 1862, the Settlement Report estimated the population of Sirsá as 151,182. In 1868 the Census returned the total population at 210,795, showing an increase for the seven years of 58,918 persons, or 38·81 per cent. Taking into account the continuous immigration from the Sikh States and from Rájputána, this high rate of increase cannot be far from the truth. In 1881 the last Census returned the population at 253,275, showing a further increase of 42,480 since 1868, or 20 per cent. in thirteen years. Considering the depopulated state in which the District continued for many years after it nominally passed into British hands, and the continuous influx of immigrants since the organization of Bhattiána in 1837, this high rate of increase, though partially due to under-enumeration in 1862, is for the second period between 1868 and 1881 believed to be at least within the truth. Indeed, it is thought that the Census of 1881 did not disclose the whole normal population. At the time of the enumeration, considerable portions of the District were suffering from drought, and numbers of people were away in search of food or work elsewhere.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 3004 square miles; number of towns 5, and of villages 630; number of houses, 34,276, namely, occupied 30,535, and unoccupied 3741; number of resident families, 51,596. Total population, 253,275, namely, males 138,691, and females 114,584; proportion of males, 54·8 per cent. Average density of population, 84 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, 0·21; persons per town or village, 399; houses per square mile, 11; persons per occupied house, 4·91. Classified according to sex and age, the population consists of—under 15 years of age, boys 52,954, and girls 46,368; total children, 99,322, or 39·2 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 85,737, and females 68,216; total adults, 153,953, or 60·8 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 130,582, or 51·5 per cent.; Muhammadans, 93,289, or 36·8; Sikhs, 28,303, or 11·2 per cent.; Jains, 1084; and Christians, 17. The ethnical division of the inhabitants shows the Játs or Jats as the leading tribe, with a total of 64,040 persons, of whom 39,112 were Hindus, 21,853 were Sikhs, 3074 were Muhammadans, and 1 was returned as a Christian. With them may be taken the allied tribe of Rájputs, who come next in point of numbers with 46,827, of whom the Hindus and Sikhs together number only 3838, while the Muhammadans number 42,989. The two tribes taken together number 110,867, or 44 per cent. of the whole population of the District. In the case of the Hindus and Sikhs, the distinction between Játs and Rájputs is clearly defined, the most marked difference being that the Játs allow the

remarriage of widows, while the Rájputs do not. But among the Musalmáns there is no such clear distinction; and in Sirsá District there are several clans which claim to be Rájputs, a claim allowed by some of their neighbours, and denied by others, who call them Játs. Speaking generally, the Játs are the best and most industrious of the cultivating classes. Of the Rájputs, the leading clan and still the dominant race, although not in a numerical point of view, are the Bhattís, 7358, almost all Muhammadans, chiefly inhabiting the Ghaggar and Sotar valleys. Like other predatory races, the Bhattís have sunk in the social scale since the British occupation, as their lazy and improvident habits unfit them for an industrial *régime*. Their chief occupation is that of graziers, with which they combine, when practicable, their hereditary practice of cattle-lifting. They are now taking to agriculture, but only own 8 villages in the District, with shares in 19 others. The Wattus, another Muhammadan Rájput clan, own the greater portion of the Sutlej valley tract, the richest portion of the District. They number 3810, and own 24 villages, with shares in 28 others. The Jaiyás are another ancient and powerful Rájput clan, who formerly contested the possession of the country around Bhatner with the Bhattís and the Bíkaner Rájputs. They number 5494, but own little land.

Of the purely or almost purely Hindu castes and tribes, the Bráhmans number 5559, many of them engaged in agriculture. Of the trading castes, Baniyás number 10,496, and Aroras 5554. The Chamárs or low-caste skinners and leather-workers number 18,022, and are next to the Játs the most numerous class among the Hindus, followed by the Chúhrás, or sweepers, who number 12,293. Of the Muhammadan population by race as apart from religion, Sayyids, who form the priesthood, number 634; Pathán, 1554; Balúchís, 1380; and Mughals, 694.

Urban and Rural Population.—Sirsá District contains only two towns with a population exceeding five thousand, namely, SIRSA, population (1881) 12,292; and FAZILKA, 6851. Three other towns are also returned as municipalities, namely, RANIA, 4626; ELLENABAD, 4131; and RORI, 3063. These towns contain a total population of 30,963, or 12·2 per cent. of the District population. Total municipal income (1883–84), £2861, or an average of 1s. 10d. per head. Of the 630 minor villages, 212 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 291 from two hundred to five hundred; 101 from five hundred to a thousand; 25 from one thousand to two thousand; and 1 from two to three thousand.

Material Condition of the People.—In material prosperity, the people of Sirsá District are better off than in many other Districts of the Punjab. They can ordinarily obtain with ease a sufficiency of good

food and comfortable clothing. Although the great majority of the dwellings are mere hovels, those who prefer a better house have little difficulty in making one; and an unusually large proportion of the people have means enough to procure such utensils, comforts, and ornaments as take their fancy. Notwithstanding the precarious yield of the harvests, there is seldom any wide-felt scarcity at all approaching famine; for the population is still scanty as compared with the area, and the yield in good years is more than sufficient to provide a surplus for bad years, and the people have learned from experience to store up grain against years of drought, while their general prosperity has enabled them to do so. The peasants are unusually independent of the money-lender.

As is natural in a newly-colonized country, the people are prone to wander. Not only are homeless tribes and families more numerous than in most other Districts; but even after having lived in a place for some years, a settler who is not getting on so well as he had hoped, thinks it no hardship to quit the village with his family, cattle, and household goods, and migrate to a more favourable spot. Especially in a year of scarcity, such migrations are common, but they are not necessarily a sign of distress. Indeed, the colonist often pays up his rent and settles all his debts, and takes away with him a considerable amount of capital with which to start life afresh in a new village. As population increases, however, and land gets more scarce and capital accumulates, the people are becoming less migratory. The Sikhs are especially reluctant to leave the fields they have cultivated and learned to love, except when pressure of population drives some members of the family to move onwards, leaving the others in possession of the family holding and often retaining their rights in it. The Bágrí Játs, too, are now settling down in their villages, though such tribes as the Báwariyas and Thoris are still very much given to wander, and Ods, Nats, and Bázigars never settle anywhere for any length of time. Even the Musalmáns, who two generations ago lived a wandering pastoral life, have now generally settled down in particular villages, although the poorer classes are still ready to migrate on the slightest grievance or hardship.

Occupations.—As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 divided the adult male population of Sirsá into the following seven main classes:—(1) Professional and official class, 3348; (2) domestic and menial class, 1623; (3) commercial class, 2192; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, 53,021; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, 14,402; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, 6550; (7) unspecified, 4601.

The proportion of adult males engaged in agriculture is larger in Sirsá than in any other District of the Punjab, being 66 per cent. as against 55 per cent. for the Province as a whole. Owing to the

recent colonization of the District, few industries have yet had time to develop. Agriculture is the main support of even a larger proportion of the population than indicated by the figures given above. Land is so plentiful and cheap, that many men belonging to castes whose hereditary occupation is distinct from agriculture supplement their caste occupation by taking land as tenants, and cultivating it themselves. Agriculture is the most respectable occupation open to a Sirsá artisan; and when a man of this class is able to support himself from the land, he gives up his hereditary caste occupation, and endeavours to forget it, and to ignore his connection with his caste-fellows who still follow the ancestral calling. The proportion of the population who do not engage in agriculture in any form is very small. Owing to the absence of an outside market, the manufactures are confined to the simple requirements of the village, which are themselves dependent on the harvest. The people of all classes are so accustomed to provide against bad seasons, that the artisans proper, like the peasants, are better off than in many other parts of the Punjab.

Agriculture.—Only a little over one-half of the cultivable area in Sirsá has been brought under tillage; a large portion of the remainder is still devoted to grazing. The staple product is *bájra*, which occupied 413,493 acres in 1883–84. The other principal crops were—*joár*, 72,780 acres; pulses, 29,136 acres; and oil-seeds (*til*), 22,129 acres. These all belong to the autumn or *kharíf* harvest, which is generally successful, and which occupies 543,119 acres, or two-thirds of the whole cultivated area; but the spring or *rabí* crops are very precarious, owing to the capriciousness of the rainfall, and they not infrequently fail altogether. In 1883–84, the principal *rabí* crops occupied the following areas:—Barley, 160,932 acres; gram, 114,359 acres; and wheat, 34,886 acres. Wheat is grown in the Sutlej and Ghaggar valleys, and rice for local consumption is produced in the latter. Total cultivated area (1883–84)—*kharíf*, 543,119 acres; and *rabí*, 323,146 acres: grand total, 866,265 acres. The average out-turn per acre for the various crops is as follows:—Rice, 779 lbs.; wheat, 457 lbs.; gram, 477 lbs.; and cotton, 59 lbs. Irrigation is but little practised, and the District is almost entirely dependent on the rainfall. A good season secures a fair supply of coarse grains and abundant pasturage for the cattle; but in a dry year, the whole country becomes an arid and desolate waste.

Sirsá was formerly famous for its breed of cattle, which are still reared in large numbers; but with the extension of cultivation, encroachments have been made upon the pasturage, and the closer grazing thus induced has proved very destructive to the *dháman* grass, from which the breed is supposed to have derived its good qualities. The agricultural stock, etc., was returned as follows in 1883–84:—Cows and bullocks,

149,314; horses, 1377; ponies, .694; donkeys, 3447; sheep and goats, 187,167; camels, 15,187; carts, 2107; and ploughs, 34,189.

As stated in a previous paragraph, the peasantry of Sirsá are generally freer from debt than in other Districts. A few of the more improvident are in the hands of the village shopkeepers, and in seasons of scarcity there is a more or less general appeal to the money-lenders. At present they are in thriving and comfortable circumstances. The chief inconvenience felt by the people is the scarcity of good drinking water in the dry tract; but wells are being sunk by degrees all over the District.

The position of the tenants is favourable, as the original owners of the soil, in their anxiety to secure cultivators from among the immigrant colonists, have granted very easy terms to settlers. Rents, when paid in money, are returned as follows, in accordance with the nature of the crop for which the land is suitable:—Rice, 7s. an acre; wheat, 3s. an acre; and other grains on unirrigated land, 10d. an acre. About one-sixth of the whole area held by tenants pays rent in kind by a share of the crop. Wages fluctuate according to the season, and are reported to have risen 50 per cent. during the last twenty years. In towns they range from 2 to 4 annas (3d. to 6d.) per diem. Agricultural wages are almost invariably paid in grain. The prices of food-grains ruled as follows in January 1884:—*Bájra*, 27 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 2d. per cwt.; barley, 37 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. per cwt.; wheat, 19 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 11d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—As Sirsá is entirely dependent for its harvests upon the scanty rainfall, it is peculiarly liable to famine. In plentiful years, the local food supply is much more than sufficient for home consumption; grain is exported in large quantities, and large reserves are kept for seasons of scarcity. For, sometimes, when the rains fail, the produce of the District is almost nothing. Sirsá suffered much during the disastrous seasons of 1868 and 1869. In October 1868, it was necessary to open poorhouses; and during January 1869, relief was afforded to 40,715 persons. The spring crop proved a total loss, and the distress continued throughout the year. Rain fell in September, in time to save the autumn harvest; but it was not till the beginning of 1870 that relief measures could be brought to an end. In January 1869, *bájra* was quoted at 10 *sers* per rupee, or 11s. 2d. per cwt. Scarcities arising from drought again occurred in 1876–77, and in 1880–81, but in neither case amounting to famine; and almost the whole of the land revenue demand was realized without difficulty, although numbers of cattle starved for want of fodder.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The District has little trade, except in agricultural produce, which goes chiefly westwards towards Sind, and eastwards to Delhi, the chief local centres being Sirsá town in the east,

and Fázilká in the west. Wool and mustard seed are exported to Karáchí; while grain, cotton, European piece-goods, and hardware are imported from the east. A great cattle fair is held at Sirsá town in August and September, attended by purchasers from the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces. About 30,000 head of cattle from the District itself and the adjoining Native States are exposed for sale; and the concourse of people is estimated at 25,000. Fázilká, on the Sutlej, is a mart of rising importance, its position on the river enabling it to conduct a direct traffic with the sea-coast, and to supersede Firozpur as an emporium for the commerce of this part of the Sutlej. The only manufacture of any importance is that of *sajji*, an impure carbonate of soda, used in washing and dyeing cloth. It is obtained by burning a plant of the same name, which contains large quantities of alkali. Coarse saltpetre is also manufactured to some extent.

Means of Communication.—The Rewári-Firozpur Railway, opened in 1885, runs across the north-east of the District, passing through Sirsá town. There are no masonry roads in the District, except for a mile or two in and near Sirsá and Fázilká towns. A good wide unmetalled road enters the District at Narel from Hissár, and runs by Sirsá, Dabwáli, and Fázilká to Muazzam on the Sutlej, where there is a ferry, and so on to Okára, a station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway in Montgomery District. Another broad road runs to the west of this, nearly the whole length of the District from Sirsá *viâ* Abohar to Fázilká, and is much used by Povindah traders from the frontier, who annually pass through the District in the cold weather, with their long strings of camels laden with merchandise from Kábul and Kandahár, on their way to Delhi and the North-Western Provinces. Other roads run from Sirsá north-east to Rori, south-east to Darba, south to Jamál, and west to Ellenábád; from Malaut south-west to Abohar and Usmán Khera, and north to Muktsar; from Fázilká north-east towards Firozpur, and south-west towards Baháwalpur. Except during the rainy season, there are no serious obstacles to traffic, though in the dry hot weather great difficulty is sometimes experienced from want of water. Total length of District roads (1884–85), 500 miles; railways, 35 miles; navigable rivers, 20 miles.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with an Assistant and Extra-Assistant, besides 3 *tahsíldárs* and their deputies. In 1872–73, the total revenue amounted to £27,227, of which £23,653 was derived from the land-tax. In 1883–84, while the general revenue of the District amounted to £32,197, the land revenue had fallen to £21,986. The rate of the land revenue is lighter in Sirsá than in any other part of the Punjab, amounting to an average of only 7d. per acre of cultivation.

For police purposes the District is divided into 7 police circles

(*thánás*). In 1883 the regular and municipal police numbered 370 men, being 1 policeman for every 8·1 square miles of area and for every 684 of the population. The District jail is at Sirsá town; the total number of inmates in 1883 was 720, while the daily average was 190.

Education is still very backward, as might naturally be expected in a District so recently occupied and so thinly populated. In 1883–84 there were only 22 Government-inspected schools in Sirsá, and the total number of pupils on the rolls was 775. There were also 105 unaided and uninspected schools, attended by 814 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 1655 boys and 34 girls as under instruction, besides 6158 males and 57 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sirsá is extremely dry. The average annual rainfall for the twenty-five years ending 1882–83 was as follows:—Sirsá, 15·3 inches; Dabwáli, 13·8 inches; and Fázilká, 13·1 inches. In 1880–81, a year of scarcity, the rainfall at Sirsá was only 8·9 inches. The thermometer varies from a minimum monthly mean of 55° F. in January to a maximum of 93° in June. The principal disease is fever, to which about three-fourths of all the deaths are assigned; but small-pox, cholera, and bowel complaints are also prevalent. The total number of deaths reported in 1884 was 8364, or 32 per thousand of the population; of which 5776 cases, or 22·80 per thousand, were assigned to fever alone. [For further information regarding Sirsá, see the *Revised Settlement Report of Sirsá District*, conducted between 1878 and 1883 by Mr. J. Wilson (Calcutta, 1884); also the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Punjab Government. Sirsá was abolished as a District in 1884 as a part of the local reorganization of the Punjab effected in that year. Sirsá *tahsíl* and 126 villages of Dabwáli *tahsíl* were transferred to Hissár District; while the Fázilká *tahsíl* of Sirsá District, and the remaining 31 villages of Dabwáli *tahsíl*, were amalgamated with Firozpur District. The change took effect from the 1st November 1884; but as the articles on Firozpur and Hissár Districts had been sent to the printer before that date, they do not take cognisance of it. It has been thought advisable, therefore, to insert the article on Sirsá District as it existed up to the time of its abolition. The population statistics all refer to 1881, and the administrative statistics have been brought down to March 31st, 1884, the last day of the financial year.]

Sirsá.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Sirsá District, Punjab; consisting chiefly of a dry and sandy plain. Area, 992 square miles. Population (1881) 94,245, namely, males 51,540, and females 42,705; average density of population, 95 persons per square mile. Hindus number 60,793; Muhammadans, 32,601; Sikhs, 176; and 'others,'

675. Of the total area of the *tahsíl*, 613,827 acres were assessed for Government revenue in 1880–81, of which 386,193 acres were under cultivation. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £12,429. The administrative staff, including the District officers at head-quarters, consists of a Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, and a *tahsíldár*, presiding over 3 civil and 3 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 82 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 190.

Sirsá.—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Sirsá District, Punjab; situated on the north side of a dry bed of the Ghaggar, in lat. 29° 32′ 20″ N., and long. 75° 7′ E. The modern town, founded in 1837 by Major Thoresby, Superintendent of Bhattiána, occupies a square site within a mud wall 8 feet high, and consists of wide streets running at right angles, without any of those narrow winding lanes which usually occur in oriental towns. Major Thoresby desired to create a centre for local trade, with which object he invited traders from Hánsi, Hissár, and the neighbouring towns of Bíkaner (Bickaneer) and Patiála. Great success attended his efforts, and the town grew rapidly in population and wealth. Population (1881) 12,292, namely, males 6711, and females 5581. Hindus, 8492; Muhammadans, 3445; Jains, 241; Sikhs, 101; 'others,' 13. Number of houses, 2019. Municipal income (1883–84), £1854, or an average of 3s. per head.

The ruins of old Sirsá lie near the south-west corner of the modern station, and still present considerable remains, though much of the material has been used for building the new houses. Tradition ascribes its origin to an eponymic Rájá Saras, who built the town and fort about 1300 years ago. The historian of Firoz Tughlak mentions it under the name of Sarsuti, and it would then appear to have been a place of wealth and importance. Nothing is known of its later history, but its depopulation is attributed to the great famine of 1726.

The modern town is an entrepôt for the trade of the wheat-growing countries to the north and east with Bíkaner (Bickaneer) and Márwár; and the opening of the Rewári-Firozpur Railway in 1885, with a station at Sirsá town, will doubtless further develop its importance. Grain of all kinds from Ludhiána, Ambála (Umballa), and Patiála, and sugar from the neighbourhood of Shámli, form the chief items of export. Salt and millets are the staples of the return traffic. The total value of the local commerce is estimated at £90,000 a year. Most of the trade is in the hands of Hindu Baniyás from Rájputána and the country to the south-east. Some of them belong to firms of considerable wealth and repute, which have established permanent branches at Sirsá. Manufacture of coarse cloth and pottery. Court-

house and treasury, church, police station, municipal hall, *tahsíli*, jail, staging bungalow, *saráí* (native inn), Government charitable dispensary, 2 schools.

Sirsá.—Town in Meja *tahsíl*, Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 14′ 48″ N., long. 82° 8′ 22″ E., on the south bank of the Ganges, and 8 miles north of Meja town, with which it is connected by a road. Station on the East Indian Railway, 3 miles south of the village. Population (1881) 3442. The market here is the largest in the District, except those in Allahábád city. Large exports of linseed and food-grains, mostly to Lower Bengal. Opium warehouse, post-office, police station, and Anglo-vernacular school. Boat-ferry service across the Ganges. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Sirsi.—Sub-division of North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 779 square miles. Population (1881) 62,400, namely, males 36,398, and females 26,002; occupying 9799 houses in 1 town and 257 villages. Hindus number 58,711; Muhammadans, 2681; and 'others,' 1008. The Sahyádri range is situated on the western boundary of the Sub-division, and in its neighbourhood lie deep moist valleys containing rich garden land between hills covered with evergreen forest. The country, as far east as the middle of the Sub-division, is covered with trees. Farther east, except some scattered evergreen patches, the forest becomes gradually thinner, and the trees more stunted. Generally the region is healthy, but malarious between October and March. Water for drinking and irrigation is abundant. Staple crops —rice, sugar-cane, gram, *múg* (Phaseolus Mungo), *kulti* (Dolichos biflorus), *uriad* (Phaseolus aconitifolius), and castor-oil; garden products comprise areca-nuts, cardamoms, cocoa-nuts, and black pepper. Survey assessment rates vary from £1, 4s. to £1, 8s. per acre for garden land; from 8s. to 10s. per acre for rice land; and from 1s. 6d. to 2s. for ordinary dry crop land. The Sub-division forms an immense forest reserve. The felling and carrying charges amount to about £1, 6s. a ton; and the sale price varies from £4, 16s. to £10 a ton. Bamboo, teak, and sago-palm are the chief forest products. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 67 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 30. Land revenue, £17,176.

Sirsi.—Chief town of the Sirsi Sub-division of North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 14° 36′ N., and long. 74° 54′ E., 320 miles south-east of Bombay, and about 60 miles south-east of the port of Kárwár, 2500 feet above sea-level. The ground on which the town stands consists of quartz and gravel, the highest points of which are covered by a bed of laterite, while in the ravines on the western and northern sides there is micaceous schist broken through by

diorite. Sirsi is a municipal town, with a population (1881) of 5633, namely, Hindus, 4336; Muhammadans, 976; Christians, 300; and Jains, 21. Municipal revenue (1883–84), £986; incidence of taxation per head, 3s. 2½d. Every alternate year, a fair is held in honour of the deity Mari, which lasts for a week, and is attended chiefly by low-caste Hindus to the number of about 10,000 persons. Sub-judge's court, post-office, and dispensary, four schools, including one for girls. Colonel Wellesley in 1800 sent a battalion to Sirsi to drive out banditti.

Sirsi.—Town in Sambhal *tahsíl*, Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 36′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 39′ 45″ E., 17 miles south-west of Moradábád town, and 3 miles east of the Sot river. Population (1881) 5947, namely, Muhammadans 4302, and Hindus 1645. Number of houses, 803. The public buildings comprise a police outpost station, *sarái* or native inn, and the tomb of Makhdum Sháh, the reputed founder of the town. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Sirsi.—Guaranteed Chiefship, a feudatory of Gwalior under the Goona Sub-agency, Central India. In 1820, the Maháráját Dáulat Ráo Sindhia granted three-fourths of the revenue of the *táluk* of Sirsi to Barút Sah, on condition that he would pay the other fourth, and reduce the Girasiás and other lawless tribes to obedience. In 1837, however, by a fresh arrangement with Hindu Singh, the payment of the one-fourth of the revenue was remitted on condition of military service when required. Sirsi State lies in the midst of forest, 30 miles to the north-west of Goona, and is apt, from its peculiar position, to become a refuge for cattle-lifters and bad characters. The number of villages is only 27, and the population (1881) 4026, namely, Hindus, 4000; Muhammadans, 25; and 'others,' 1. The revenue of the State was estimated in 1881 at £400 per annum. The present Díwán of Sirsi is named Bijai Bahádur.

Sirsi.—Town in Umrer *tahsíl*, Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2107, namely, Hindus, 1872; Muhammadans, 80; Jains, 14; and non-Hindu aborigines, 141.

Sirsundí.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Brahmapurí *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central Provinces; 24 miles east of Wairágarh. Area, 38 square miles; number of villages, 12; houses, 179; population (1881), 755. Sirsundí village is situated in lat. 20° 26′ N., and long. 80° 23′ E., and contains (1881) 294 inhabitants.

Siruguppa.—Town in Bellary District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SIRAGUPA.

Sirúr.—North-eastern Sub-division of Poona (Púna) District, Bombay Presidency; lying between 18° 31′ and 19° 1′ N. lat., and 74° 5′ and 74° 40′ E. long.; 38 miles long, and 36 miles broad. Area, 577 square

miles. Population (1881) 72,793, namely, males 36,392, and females 36,401; occupying 13,633 houses in 76 villages. Hindus number 67,006; Muhammadans, 4036; and 'others,' 1751. Sirúr consists of stony uplands seamed towards the centre by rugged valleys, but towards its river boundaries sloping into more open plains. The chief features are low hills and uplands. The low hills are occasionally rugged and steep; the uplands, in some parts poor and stony, have in other parts rich tracts of good soil, with, especially in the south-east corner, gentle undulations passing into a fairly level plain. The country is throughout sparsely wooded. The prevailing soil is a light friable grey, freely mixed with gravel. The best upland soils are very productive, even with a comparatively scanty rainfall. In 1881–82, 206,692 acres were under actual cultivation, of which 2181 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 178,945 acres; pulses, 19,885 acres; oil-seeds, 7488 acres; fibres, 526 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 2029 acres. The cultivating classes, who form nearly two-thirds of the total population, are chiefly Kunbís and Malís, who are found throughout the Sub-division. About 5 per cent. of the husbandmen have to borrow both cattle and field implements. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circle (*tháná*), 1; regular police, 46 men; and village watch (*chaukidárs*), 162. Land revenue, £13,824.

Sirúr (or *Ghodnadi*).—Town, municipality, and cantonment in the Sirúr Sub-division of Poona District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the river Ghod, in lat. 18° 49′ 45″ N., and long. 74° 22′ 51″ E., 36 miles north-east of Poona city and 34 miles south-west of Ahmadnagar. Elevation, about 1750 feet above sea-level. The country around is hilly and uncultivated. Sirúr is a municipal town, with a total population (1881) of 4372, and a municipal revenue (1883–84) of £737; incidence of taxation, 2s. 10¾d. Sirúr has about 285 money-lenders, traders, and shopkeepers, some of whom are rich. They trade in cloth and grain. At the weekly market on Saturdays, large numbers of cattle and horses are sold. The garrison of Sirúr cantonment consists of the Poona Auxiliary Horse. The most notable monument in the cemetery is the tomb of Colonel W. Wallace (1809), who is still remembered by the aged at Sirúr as *Sat Purush*, 'the Holy Man.' Except Bráhmans and Márwáris, all the Hindus of Sirúr and neighbouring villages worship at Colonel Wallace's tomb. At harvest-time the villagers bring first-fruits of grain as *naivedya* or 'food for the saintly spirit.' At a hamlet about 2 miles south of the town, a Hindu fair, attended by about 3000 persons, is held yearly in March or April. Post-office, dispensary, and travellers' bungalow.

Sirutandanallúr (or *Iral*). — Trading town in Tenkarai *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated near the mouth of the

Támbraparni, in lat. 8° 38′ N., and long. 78° 35′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 6087, living in 1456 houses. Hindus number 4152; Muhammadans, 1363; and Christians, 572.

Sirvel (*Sirvail*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Karnúl District, Madras Presidency. Area, 623 square miles. Population (1881) 57,197, namely, males 28,754, and females 28,443; occupying 12,961 houses in 87 villages. Hindus number 49,004; Muhammadans, 7128; and Christians, 1065. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 4; regular police, 40 men. Land revenue, £14,843.

Sirvel (*Sirvail*).—Chief village of Sirvel *táluk*, Karnúl District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 2091, occupying 461 houses. Hindus number 1210; Muhammadans, 880; and Christian, 1.

Sisáng Chandli.—Petty State in the Halár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, with 5 shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 1 square mile. Population (1881) 1712. Estimated revenue, £750; of which £72 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £22, 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Siskal-betta (or *Sisukali-betta*).—Lofty mountain, with a columnar peak, in the central range of the Western Ghâts, which form the frontier between Hassan District, Mysore State, and the District of South Kánara, Madras Presidency.

Sisotár.—Town in Bánsdih *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 02′ 46″ N., long. 84° 07′ 05″ E., about 2 miles north of Sikandarpur town, and 13 miles from Bánsdih. Population (1881) 5970. The village is the head-quarters of a permanently settled estate owned by a family of Bhúinhárs or cultivating Bráhmans. Small manufacture of cotton cloth. Sugar refinery. Primary school.

Sispára (*Chichchipárai*).—Pass leading from Malabar to the Nílgiris District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 12′ N., long. 76° 28′ E. Now entirely out of repair.

Sissaindi.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated on the banks of the Sal river, 6 miles south-east of Mohanlálganj. The residence of Rájá Kási Prasád, a wealthy *tálukdár*. Population (1881) 2861.

Sissána.—Agricultural town or collection of hamlets in Sámpla *tahsíl*, Rohtak District, Punjab. Population (1868) 5051, consisting of 3830 Hindus, 467 Muhammadans, and 754 'others.' Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Siswáli.—Town in Kotah State, Rájputána; situated about 35 miles north-east of Kotah town. Population (1881) 5030, namely, Hindus, 4041; Muhammadans, 734; and 'others,' 255.

Sítabáldí.—Battle-field and cantonment near Nágpur city, in NAGPUR DISTRICT, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 9′ N., long. 79° 8′ E.

Sítákund.—Highest peak in the Sítákund range, Chittagong District, Bengal. A sacred hill, 1155 feet above sea-level. Lat. 22° 37′ 40″ N., long. 91° 41′ 40″ E.

Sítákund (or *Chandranáth*).—Sacred spring on the above mountain, said to have been bituminous, but now no longer in existence, having either dried up or filled up in the latter part of the last century. The site is, however, still a revered place of pilgrimage for Hindus from all parts of India. Tradition states that Sítákund was visited by both Ráma and Siva; and it is believed to be one of the favourite earthly residences of the latter deity. The principal gathering is the *Siva Chaturdasi* festival, on the 14th day of the moon sacred to Siva (usually in February); it lasts about ten days, and is attended by from 10,000 to 20,000 devotees. The pilgrims live at lodging-houses kept for the purpose by Bráhmans, called *adhikáris*, each of whom is said to realize from £300 to £400 during this festival. Minor gatherings take place at Sítákund in or near the months of March and November, and on the occasion of every eclipse of the sun and moon. The ascent of Sítákund or Chandranáth Hill is said to redeem the pilgrim from the misery of a future birth. A meeting of Buddhists (chiefly hillmen) takes place on the last day of the Bengalí year at a spot on Chandranáth Hill, where the body of Gautama, the last Buddha, is locally reported to have been burned after death. Bones of deceased relatives are brought here, and deposited in a pit sacred to Gautama. At Bharatkund, in the same range of hills, there is a bituminous spring. The water is cold, but there is a constant emission of gas from the shale, which, being lighted, keeps up a flame.

Sítákund.—An oblong tank, about 100 feet long by 50 feet wide, excavated in the MANDAR HILL, Bhágalpur District, Bengal, nearly 500 feet above the surrounding plain. The pilgrims who visit it are persuaded to believe that Sítá used to bathe in it during her stay on the hill with her husband when banished from Oudh. On the northern bank of this tank stood the first temple of Madhu-súdan, ascribed to Rájá Chola, now in ruins.

Sítalpur.—Village in Sáran District, Bengal; situated on the Gandak river. Population (1881) 2671.

Sítámarhí.—Sub-division of Muzaffarpur District, Bengal. Area, 1014 square miles; number of villages, 1404; houses, 121,350. Population (1881)—males 420,544, and females 417,350; total, 837,894. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 715,710; Muhammadans, 122,155; and Christians, 29. Average density of population, 826 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·38; persons per village, 597; houses per square mile, 123; persons per house, 6·9. This Sub-division consists of the 3 police circles of Sheohar, Sítámarhí,

and Puprí. In 1884 it contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, a force of 88 policemen, and 1356 village watchmen.

Sítámarhí.—Town, municipality, and head-quarters of Sítámarhí Sub-division, Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Lakhandái, in lat. 26° 35′ 20″ N., and long. 85° 31′ 33″ E. Population (1881) 6125, namely, Hindus, 5160; Muhammadans, 964; 'other,' 1. Municipal income (1883–84), £461, of which £294 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 10¾d. per head of the population (6535) within municipal limits. The town contains a good dispensary, school, *bázár*, and a *munsifi* formerly stationed at Koelí; daily markets with trade in rice, *sakhwá* wood, oil-seeds, hides, and Nepál produce; chief manufactures—saltpetre, and the *janáo* or sacred thread worn by Bráhmans and others. Large fair held in the month of Chaitra, the principal day being the 9th of the Sukla Paksha, or Rámnámí, the day on which Ráma is said to have been born. This fair lasts a fortnight, and is attended by people from very great distances. Sewán pottery, elephants, spices, brass utensils, and cotton cloth form the staple articles of commerce; but the fair is noted for the large number of bullocks brought here, the Sítámarhí cattle being supposed to be an especially good breed. Tradition relates that the lovely Janakí or Sítá, whose life is described in the *Rámáyana*, here sprang to life out of an earthen pot into which Rájá Janak had driven his ploughshare. Nine temples, of which five are in the same enclosure as that of Sítá, are dedicated to Sítá, Hanumán, Siva, and Dáhi. A wooden bridge here crosses the Lakhandái, built by Rái Chandhari Rúdra Prasád Bahádur, of Nánpur Koelí. Sítámarhí is connected by road with the Nepál frontier, and also with Darbhangah and Muzaffarpur.

Sítámau.—Native State under the Western Málwá Agency, Central India. Area, 350 square miles. Population (1881) 30,839, namely, males 16,354, and females 14,485. Hindus number 27,905; Muhammadans, 1528; Jains, 942; non-Hindu aborigines, 464. Estimated revenue from all sources, £19,587; exclusive of *jágírs*, £12,600. Tribute of £5500 is paid to Sindhia. The tribute was originally fixed at £6000, but was reduced by £500 in 1860 in compliance with the representations of the British Government. The principal products of the State are grain, opium, and cotton. Sítámau, like Sailána, formed originally a portion of Ratlám, and was separated from it on the death of Rám Singh, Rájá of Ratlám in 1660, when his second son Kassur Dás succeeded to the lands now comprised in Sítámau. The chief is a Rahtor Rájput. He receives a salute of 11 guns. The military force consists of 40 horse and 100 foot.

Sítámau.—Chief town of the State of Sítámau, Central India; situated in lat. 24° N., and long. 75° 23′ E. The town is built on an

eminence, and is enclosed by a wall in good preservation. About 230 miles south-west of the fort of Gwalior, 48 miles from Nimach, 58 miles from Agar. The nearest post-office is Mandesar, 17 miles west. The nearest telegraph office and railway station are at Dilanda, 15 miles west, on the Málwá branch of the Rájputána-Málwá Railway. Population (1881) 5764, namely, Hindus, 4443; Muhammadans, 931; and 'others,' 390.

Sítámpetta.—Pass in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency, being one of the principal roads from Vizagapatam into Ganjám, and the usual route into Jaipur (Jeypore). Lat. 18° 40′ N., long. 83° 55′ E. The road is practicable for wheeled traffic.

Sítánagar.—Town in Damoh *tahsíl*, Damoh District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2513, namely, Hindus, 2181; Kabírpanthís, 181; Satnámís, 7; and Muhammadans, 144.

Sítánagaram.—Hills in Kistna District, Madras Presidency, lying between 16° 28′ and 16° 29′ 40″ N. lat., and between 88° 38′ and 88° 38′ 40″ E. long., on the right bank of the Kistna river opposite BEZWARA, and forming one base of the great anicut. Near this range are the Undavalli caves, including a four-storied rock-cut temple now adapted to Vishnu-worship.

Sitang.—Bold conical peak in Dárjíling District, Bengal; situated to the south-east of Dárjíling station. The northern slopes are occupied by the Government cinchona gardens. Lat. 26° 54′ 45″ N., long. 88° 26′ E.

Sítápur.—Division or Commissionership of the Province of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; lying between 26° 53′ and 28° 42′ N. lat., and between 79° 44′ and 81° 23′ E. long. It forms the north-western Division of Oudh, and comprises the three Districts of SITAPUR, HARDOI, and KHERI, each of which see separately. The Division is bounded on the north by the independent territory of Nepál; on the east by Bahraich District; on the south by Bara Banki, Lucknow, and Unao Districts; and on the west by Farukhábád, Sháhjahánpur, and Pilibhít Districts. Area (1881), 7555 square miles, with 21 towns, 5824 villages, and 440,579 houses.

Population:—The Census of 1869 returned the population of Sítápur Division at 2,602,425. The last enumeration in 1881 returned a total of 2,777,803, namely, males 1,482,709, and females 1,295,094. Increase of population in twelve years, 175,378, or 6·7 per cent. Average density of population (1881), 367·6 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, ·77; persons per town or village, 475; houses per square mile, 58·3. Classified according to religion, Hindus form the great bulk of the population, and were returned in 1881 as numbering 2,431,475, or 87·5 per cent.; Muhammadans num-

bered 345,060, or 12·3 per cent.; Christians, 915; Jains, 264; and Sikhs, 89. Among the Hindu high castes, Bráhmans numbered 275,728; Rájputs, 135,094; Gosáins, 11,770; Bháts, 8154; Baniyás, 52,905; and Káyasths, 30,263. The most numerous caste in the Division are the despised Chamárs, who are returned at 392,693; the other important Hindu castes according to numerical superiority being —Ahírs, 229,150; Pásís, 225,189; Kúrmís, 182,363; Káchhí, 166,644; Lodhs, 78,829; Kahárs, 78,736; Gadárias, 68,719; Telís, 58,711; Dhobís, 45,910; Korís, 37,098; Náis, 36,164; Bhurjís, 35,722; Barháis, 34,291; Lohárs, 28,966; Kumbhárs, 24,922; Loniás, 24,841; Kalwárs, 24,827; Tamulís, 15,452; Dhanuks, 14,905; Bhangís, 12,345; Sonárs, 10,230; and Málís, 5760.

Town and Rural Population.—The following are the seven largest towns in Sítápur Division—Sháhábád, population (1881) 18,510; Sandilá, 14,865; Khairábád, 14,217; Bílgrám, 11,067; Malawán, 10,970; Lahárpur, 10,437; and Hardoi, 10,026. Thirteen smaller towns contain upwards of five thousand inhabitants, making a total urban population for the Division of 183,807, or 6·6 per cent. of the Divisional population. Of the 5825 minor towns and villages, 4021 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 1256 between five hundred and a thousand; 459 between one thousand and two thousand; and 89 between two thousand and five thousand. As regards occupation, the male population are divided into the following six classes:—(1) Professional and official class, 21,910; (2) domestic class, including inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 4960; (3) commercial class, including merchants, bankers, traders, carriers, etc., 23,981; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 721,105; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 113,356; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, men of rank and property without occupation, and male children, 597,397.

Agriculture.—Of a total area of 4,533,820 acres assessed for Government revenue in 1883–84, 2,573,137 acres are returned as under cultivation, 1,286,496 acres as grazing land, and 674,187 acres as uncultivable waste. Irrigation is supplied to 517,267 acres entirely by private enterprise, there being no Government irrigation works in the Division. The cultivated crops in 1883–84 were returned as follows:—Rice, 342,299 acres; wheat, 418,869 acres; other food-grains, 1,867,640 acres; oil-seeds, 25,502 acres; sugar-cane, 56,998 acres; cotton, 13,834 acres; opium, 16,653 acres; indigo, 2124 acres; fibres, 6187 acres; tobacco, 4762 acres; and vegetables, 16,017 acres: total area under crops, including land bearing two harvests in the year, 2,770,885 acres.

The male adult agricultural population in 1881 numbered 717,312, of whom 24,391 were returned as landholders, 6372 as estate agents, 578,748 as cultivators, and 107,801 as agricultural labourers. The

total agricultural population dependent on the soil is returned at 1,996,061, or 71·86 per cent. of the entire inhabitants of the Division. Total Government land revenue in 1881, including local rates and cesses levied upon land, £363,395, or an average of 2s. 10d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £772,526, or an average of 5s. 10⅞d. per cultivated acre.

Administration.—The administrative staff, from the Commissioner downwards, consists of 44 civil and revenue judges, and 53 magistrates. Total Government revenue of Sítápur Division (1883–84), £407,997, of which £343,138 was derived from the land-tax. The total cost of civil administration, as represented by the salaries of officials and police, was in the same year £59,228. The regular and town police in 1883–84 numbered 1626 men of all ranks; supplemented by 9006 village watchmen or *chaukidárs*. The jails and lock-ups contained in 1883 a daily average of 928 prisoners, of whom 37 were females. In 1883–84, there were 401 State-inspected schools in the Division, attended by 14,581 pupils. No returns are available of the private and uninspected indigenous village schools. In 1881, the Census showed 13,048 boys and 509 girls as under instruction, besides 52,709 males and 771 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Sítápur.—British District in the Sítápur Division or Commissionership of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; lying between 27° 7′ and 27° 53′ N. lat., and between 80° 21′ and 81° 26′ E. long. The District is elliptical in shape; greatest length from south-east to north-west, 70 miles; extreme breadth from north-east to south-west, 55 miles. Bounded on the north by Kheri; on the east by Bahráich, the Gogra river marking the boundary line; and on the south and west by Bara Banki, Lucknow, and Hardoi Districts, the Gúmti river forming the boundary. Area, 2251 square miles. Population (1881) 985,251 souls. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at SITAPUR TOWN, but KHAIRABAD is the largest town.

Physical Aspects.—Sítápur consists of one large plain, sloping imperceptibly from an elevation of 505 feet above sea-level in the north-west, to 400 feet in the south-east, the fall averaging 1½ foot per mile. Although containing no forest tracts and but little jungle, the country is well wooded with numerous groves, and closely cultivated, except where the soil is barren or cut up into ravines. It is intersected by frequent streams, and contains many shallow ponds and natural reservoirs, which are full of water during the rains, but gradually dry up in the hot season. The District is naturally divided into two parts by a low ridge running down from the north, parallel to the course of the Chauka and Gogra rivers. The western division occupies about

two-thirds of the entire District, and has a dry soil, which in the extreme west, towards the Gúmti, becomes sandy. In the vicinity of the smaller streams, the surface is deeply scored by the ravines which form its natural drainage. The eastern division, locally known as the *ganjar*, consists of the *doábs* or alluvial plains between the Kewáni and Chauka, and the Chauka and Gogra rivers. This is a damp, moist tract, growing good rice-crops, but interspersed with patches of land covered with saline efflorescence (*reh*), which is fatal to all wild vegetation except the stunted *babúl* tree (Acacia arabica). This tract is very liable to inundation.

The principal rivers are the following:—The GOGRA, the principal river of Oudh, forms the eastern boundary of Sítápur, and in the rainy season has a width of from 4 to 6 miles. The CHAUKA runs nearly parallel to the Gogra, 8 miles to the west, and finally falls into the latter river at Bahramghát in Bara Banki District. Numerous cross channels connect the Gogra with the Chauka. Proceeding westward are the Gon, Oel, Kewáni, Saráyan, and Gúmti, the latter forming the western and southern boundary of the District. The Gogra is the only river navigable by boats of large tonnage throughout the year. The others are all fordable at certain points during the dry season. There are no large river-side towns in the District, nor any river-trading population.

The only mineral product is *kankar* or nodular limestone, which is found in abundance in many parts of the country. The indigenous trees of the District are the mango (Mangifera indica), *pípal* (Ficus religiosa), *gular* (Ficus glomerata), *pákar* (Ficus infectoria), *bargad* or banian tree (Ficus bengalensis), *nim* (Azadirachta melia), *sissu* (Dalbergia Sissoo), *tun* (Cedrela Toona), *simal* or cotton tree (Bombax heptaphyllum), *jámuro* or *pharenda* (Eugenia jambolanum), *bel* (Ægle Marmelos), *kathal* (Artocarpus integrifolia), *babúl* (Acacia arabica), *khayer* (Acacia Catechu), *dhák* (Butea frondosa), *khejur* (Phœnix sylvestris), *áonla* (Phyllanthus Emblica), *siras* (Mimosa Sirissa), tamarind (Tamarindus indica), *kachnár* (Bauhinia variegata), and the common bamboo. Gums and dyes are collected in the jungles, and fibres are utilized from the roots of the *dhák* tree and from *munj* and *sarpat* grass. None of the larger wild animals are met with. *Nilgái*, many varieties of deer, wild hog, wolf, jackal, fox, and hare are common. The dolphin and crocodile are found in the Gogra.

History.—The history of Sítápur District presents no distinctive features apart from that of the Province as a whole; but the following paragraphs respecting the territorial distribution of property among the clans, and their earlier history, quoted from the *Oudh Gazetteer*, may be found interesting:—

'To the east, the Raikwárs occupy most of the country between the

Chauka and Kauriála, North and South Kundri forming part of the block of territory, extending north and south about 60 miles along both sides of the Kauriála, over which for one or two centuries the Raikwárs have exercised a real or nominal supremacy. The great Raikwár estates of Baundi and Rámnagar are in Bahraich and Bara Banki Districts; the younger branches of the clan settled in Sítápur, at Mallápur, at Chahlári, and at Rámpur, all on the western bank of the Kauriála. The ancestor of each branch obtained three or four villages, and has gradually increased his possessions through the aid and influence of the great lords of his blood in Baundi and Rámnagar. The estate of Chahlári was forfeited after the Mutiny for rebellion. The clan is a very small one in point of numbers.

'To the north, in *parganás* Sítápur, Láharpur, Hargám, Chandra, and Tambaur, the great Bamhan Gaur clan from Nárkanjari settled towards the close of Alamgír's reign. They commenced by attacking the Ahbans and the Janwárs of Kheri, who were driven into exile about 1760. The Gaurs then proceeded farther to the north-west, having meanwhile consolidated their power in Sítápur and Láharpur; they attacked the Musalmán Rájá of Muhamdi, defeated and drove him out. At length the Rohillás came to the aid of the Rájá, and drove back the Gaurs with heavy loss; the last battle was fought at Mailáni, 20 miles north of Kukra, so far had the Gaurs carried their victorious arms. They then joined with the Rájá of Dhaurahra in resisting Názim Sítal Prasád, the most sanguinary of all the satraps whom the early Oudh Nawábs let loose upon the conquered country. They were defeated with heavy loss at Dhaurahra; one of their chiefs was beheaded in the river under the fort of Khairigarh, and the clan then settled down into ordinary rural squires.

'To the south, the Khánzáda family of Bilahra, in Bara Banki District, has within the last seventy years occupied most of the *parganás* of Mahmúdábád and Sadrpur, besides acquiring large estates in Biswán, by mortgage or simply as trustee. This family has generally numbered among its members men of ability and energy; they were connected by marriage with the influential Shaikhzádas of Lucknow, and were used by the Lucknow court as a check upon the great Raikwár kingdom along the Gogra, which their principality almost cut in two.

'To the east, the Ahbans formerly held *parganás* Nímkhár, Aurangábád, Maholi, and part of Khairábád, besides part of the Districts of Kheri and Hardoi. Lon Singh, the great Rájá of Mitauli, was banished for rebellion in 1859, and his estate divided among a number of loyal grantees. His only brother tried in vain to recover a part of the property, which is said to have once included 2700 villages. The Ahbans produce a family tree with 109 generations; they are Chawar Kshattriyas, and came from Gujarát. Almost the only survivor of the clan in

Sítápur is called a Kunwár, and is a man of little property or influence. The clan is now of no importance, so hollow and transitory was the power of these great landowners. A number of deeds were produced in the Kheri courts in which the Ahban chiefs are styled Mahárájás by the Emperors Akbar and Jahángír; they were skilfully executed forgeries. Their former *parganás* are now held by Mughal grantees from the Oudh kings, by Káyasths and others, probably retainers of the ancient Ahbans.

'The middle portion of Sítápur is held by many different clans of Kshattriyas. Originally, there was a powerful Chauhán sovereignty in Sítápur, and a Raghubansi principality in Tambaur; they have both disappeared. A variety of clans occupy each a *parganá* or the greater part of a *parganá*, except in Biswán and Khairábád, which were the seats of local governors, who took care to destroy the coherence of the clan system by breaking up its possessions and distributing them miscellaneously. It is remarkable that no clan except the Gaurs asserted its supremacy over large areas like the Kanhpurias, Sombansis, or Bais in Southern Oudh. It is a mistake, indeed, to call them clans; each is a collection of a few families, of whom the eldest member was the leader, and was called the Thákur. These gentlemen increased their estates during the later years of native rule by appropriating the shares of their brethren.

'The different landowning Kshattriya clans are the following:—In Gundlamau *parganá*, Báchhils; in Bári, Bais; in Pírnagar, Bais; in Manwán, Panwárs; in Rámkot, Janwárs; in Kurauna, Janwárs; in Machrehta, Kachhwáhas, Janwárs, Bais, and Rahtors. The Janwárs' possessions are mainly to the west of the Saráyan; those of the Bais to the east. Both these clans are probably of indigenous origin, as are also the Báchhils and the Raghubansis. The Panwárs, Kachhwáhas, and Gaurs are immigrants from Rájputána. None of the above clans have a Rájá in Sítápur; but the Ahban Rájá of Mitauli, the Panwár Rájá of Itaunja, and the Raikwár Rájá of Baundi did to a certain extent exercise a control over their clansmen in the District. It is noteworthy that there is not in this District a single Rájá by descent recognised as such by the people, and the title is not even claimed by any one. The special feature of the Sítápur land proprietary is the existence of a number of men, about fifteen, with large estates paying from £500 to £1900 land revenue, who have not been entered in the *tálukdárs'* list.'

Sítápur figured prominently in the Mutiny of 1857. In that year, 3 regiments of Native infantry and a regiment of military police were quartered in Sítápur cantonments. The troops rose in mutiny on the morning of the 3rd June, fired on their officers, many of whom were killed, as were also several military and civil officers, with their wives

and children, in attempting to escape. Ultimately, many of the fugitives succeeded in reaching Lucknow, while others obtained the protection of loyal *zamíndárs*. On the 13th April 1858, Sir Hope Grant inflicted a severe defeat on the rebels near Biswán. Order was completely restored before the end of that year, the courts and offices were reopened; and since then nothing has occurred to disturb the peace of the District.

Population.—The population of Sítápur District, according to the Census of 1869, was 932,959. The last Census in 1881 returned a total of 958,251 inhabitants, showing an increase of 25,292 in the twelve years between 1869 and 1881. The results of the last Census may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 2251 square miles; towns 7, and villages 2301; houses, 150,849. Total population, 958,251, namely, males 505,986, and females 452,265; proportion of males in total population, 52·8 per cent. Average density of population, 425·6 persons per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, 1·02; persons per town or village, 415; houses per square mile, 67; inmates per house, 6·3. Classified according to sex and age, the Census returns show—under 15 years of age, boys 193,534, and girls 172,817; total children, 366,351, or 38·2 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 312,452, and females 279,448; total adults, 591,900, or 61·8 per cent.

Religion.—The great majority of the population are Hindus, their number being returned at 818,738, or 85·4 per cent. Muhammadans number 138,733, or 14·5 per cent.; Jains, 263; Sikhs, 74; and Christians, 443. The higher castes of Hindus include—Bráhmans, 99,637; Rájputs, 36,320; Gosáins, 5310; Bháts, 3358; Baniyás (as representing the Vaisya or trading caste of ancient India), 15,029; and Káyasths, 12,751. The lower or Sudra castes include the following:—Chamárs, the most numerous caste in the District, 123,115; Pásís, 90,115; Ahírs, 86,808; Kúrmís, 78,908; Lodhs, 36,517; Káchhís, 36,163; Kahárs, 25,790; Telís, 17,624; Gadárias, 17,150; Dhobís, 16,552; Bhurjís, 12,783; Barháis, 12,109; Náis, 11,317; Koris, 10,812; Lohárs, 10,349; Kalwárs, 9104; Loniás, 8778; Kumbhárs, 8740; Tamulís, 4979; Sonárs, 3669; Bhangís, 3485; Dhanuks, 2859; and Málís, 2027.

The Muhammadans are divided according to sect into Sunnís 136,354, and Shiás 2379. The Muhammadan converts or descendants of converts from the higher castes of Hindus are very few in number, and consist of Rájputs 577, and Mewátís 100. The Muhammadans by race apart from religion consist of Sayyids, Patháns, Mughals, and Shaikhs. These are chiefly *tálukdárs* and *zamíndárs*, or servants in respectable employ. The low-class Muhammadans, descended from Hindu low-caste converts, consist chiefly of weavers, tailors, greengrocers,

milkmen, etc. The Christian population comprises — Europeans, 365; Eurasians, 32; and natives, 46.

Town and Rural Population.—Sítápur District contains seven towns with a population exceeding five thousand inhabitants, namely, SITAPUR, the administrative head-quarters of the District, population (1881) 6780; KHAIRABAD, 14,217; LAHARPUR, 10,437; BISWAN, 8148; ALAMNAGAR-THOMSONGANJ, 7984; MAHMUDABAD, 7335; and PAINTEPUR, 5199. These seven towns contain an aggregate of 60,100 persons, or 6·27 per cent. of the District population. The rural population, numbering 898,151, dwell in 2301 villages. Of these, 795 villages contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 905 between two hundred and five hundred; 498 between five hundred and a thousand; 91 between one thousand and two thousand; 8 between two thousand and three thousand; and 4 between three thousand and five thousand. Sítápur, Khairábád, and Biswán are the only regularly constituted municipalities. Total municipal income (1883–84), £2695, of which £1623 was derived from taxation, chiefly octroi; average incidence of taxation, 9½d. per head of the population (40,909) within municipal limits. Sítápur municipality, as distinct from the town and head-quarters station, contains a population returned at 18,544. As regards occupation, the Census divides the male population into the following six classes:—(1) Professional and official class, 8733; (2) domestic class, 2097; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 8519; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 236,849; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 42,476; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 207,212.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of the District in 1883–84 (1,442,066 acres), 931,510 acres were returned as under cultivation, 326,102 acres as grazing land or as available for cultivation, and 184,454 acres as uncultivable waste. Two harvests are gathered in the year—the *kharíf* or autumn crops, and the *rabí* or spring crops. The *kharíf* consists of the following:—Rice (Oryza sativa), *kodo* (Paspalum scrobiculatum), *sawan* (Panicum frumentaceum), *mandua* (Eleusine corocana), *kákún* (Setaria italica), *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), *til* (Sesamum indicum), *urid* or *mas* (Phaseolus radiatus), *múg* (Phaseolus mungo), *moth* (Phaseolus aconitifolius), *pát* (Hibiscus sabdariffa), *san* (Crotalaria juncea). Rice forms the staple crop of the eastern or moist portion of the District. The *rabí* or spring crops are—wheat (Triticum sativum), gram (Cicer arietinum), barley (Hordeum vulgare), *láhi* or mustard (Brassica nigra), *tisi* or linseed (Linum usitatissimum), castor-oil (Ricinus communis), *matar* or peas (Pisum sativum), *masúri* (Ervum lens), *arhar* (Cajanus indicus), safflower (Carthamus tinctorius). Besides the above, which are the staple *kharíf*

and *rabí* crops, a considerable quantity of sugar-cane is raised, as also cotton, *pán*, and tobacco. Poppy is cultivated under Government supervision. Garden produce consists of kitchen vegetables of every description, turmeric, spices, ginger, water-melons. The cultivated fruits are guavas, plantains, custard-apples, oranges and lemons, wood-apples, melons, pomelos, etc. The area under the different crops (including lands bearing two crops in the year) was returned as follows in 1883–84:—Wheat, 150,819 acres; rice, 129,619 acres; other food-grains, 655,400 acres; sugar-cane, 17,851 acres; oil-seeds, 16,604 acres; opium, 7505 acres; cotton, 4058 acres; tobacco, 2090 acres; fibres, 735 acres; and vegetables, 5202 acres. The male adult agricultural population of Sitápur District in 1881 was returned at 235,345, giving an average of 4·04 cultivated acres to each. The total population, however, dependent on the soil amounted to 662,272, or 69·11 per cent. of the District population. The profits of cultivation, after paying for labour, are calculated at about 4s. per acre per year; labour at the market price is worth about £3 per annum; therefore a tenant cultivating 3½ acres with his own hands will be worth about £3, 14s. per annum, and if his cattle are his own, and he is unburdened by debt, he may make £4, 16s. What with bad seasons, unforeseen expenses, etc., the small tenant is generally in debt, and his net earnings in that case will be about £3 per annum. Of the total area of 2251 square miles, 2179 square miles are assessed for Government land revenue, amounting in 1881 to £138,943, or an average of 2s. 11½d. per cultivated acre. Rental paid by cultivators, £296,983, or an average of 6s. 3d. per cultivated acre. Rents, as a rule, are paid in kind, only about one-tenth of the whole being cash payments. The landlord's share varies from one-fourth to one-half.

Where rents are paid in money, the following are given as the average rates per acre, according to crops, in the official returns:—Rice lands, 6s. 5d.; wheat, 10s.; inferior grains, 6s.; cotton, 10s.; opium, £1, 7s. 9d.; oil-seeds, 7s. 10½d.; sugar-cane, 16s. 11d.; tobacco, £1, 1s. 3d. The average price of food-grains per cwt. during the five years 1866–70 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 5s. 11d.; barley, 3s. 6½d.; gram, 5s. 6d.; and *bájra*, 4s. 6d. In 1884, the average price of wheat was about 4s. 6d. per cwt., and of common rice, 7s. 8d. per cwt. Wages are slightly higher than in the adjacent District of Bara Banki. In Mahmudábád *parganá*, an agricultural labourer engaged by the month receives wages at the rate of 6s. per month. If working by the day at raising water from wells or tanks, he is paid at the rate of 3d. per diem in towns; and by an allowance of food-grain in rural parts. The prevailing tenures are as follows:—1051 villages or parts of villages held in *tálukdárí*, 1415 in *zamíndárí*, 405 in *pattidárí*, and 49 in *bháyáchára*. There are 23 large

tálukdárs paying a Government assessment of upwards of £500, of whom the following are the principal:—Rájá Amír Hassan Khán, assessed at £15,621; Thákurain Prithwi Pál Kunár, widow of Thákur Seo Bâksh Singh, £7652; Thákur Jawáhir Singh, £4183; Thákur Pratáp Rúdra Singh, £3407; and Muhammad Bakr Alí Khán, £3159. Most of the *tálukdárs* also hold estates in other parts of the Province. As indicated in the historical section of this article, the greater part of the land is in the hands of various clans of Rájputs, who are returned as holding 1379 villages in Sítápur. Muhammadans are the proprietors of 704 villages.

Natural Calamities.—The eastern portion of the District is peculiarly liable to floods, being under water more or less entirely every year during the rains. These inundations often devastate whole villages, and invariably cause loss to the inhabitants through the injury to their houses, the drowning of their cattle, and the destruction of their *kharíf* or autumn crops. In the great flood of 1871, three-fourths of the autumn crops perished, and from July to September the country was one sheet of water. Drought, however, is the main cause of famine; and the Deputy Commissioner reports that famine occurred in 1769–70, 1784–85, 1837–38, and in 1860–61, caused by want of rain. Sítápur was also verging on famine for a few months at the close of 1869, but a plentiful late crop happily saved the District.

Roads and Means of Communication, etc.—Two metalled lines of road run through Sítápur District—one from Sítápur town to Lucknow for 33½ miles, and the other to Sháhjahánpur for 22 miles. Unmetalled roads communicate with Lakhimpur, Hardoi, Mahmudábád, Bahraich, Mallápur, Mehndighát, Sandíla, Nímkhar, Kasta, Mitauli, Piháni, etc. Total length of roads in the District, 500 miles. Water communication is afforded by 180 miles of navigable rivers. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway nowhere touches on Sítápur District. The only manufactures of any note are those of tobacco, and of *taziás* at Biswán, with a little cotton printing and weaving in many of the towns. Biswán contains about 100 families of weavers; but here, as elsewhere, the industry is decaying, owing to the competition of English manufactured cloth.

Administration.—The judicial staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner, with two or three European and four or five native Assistants of various grades. The total imperial and local revenue of the District in 1883–84 was £158,949, of which £130,096 was derived from the land revenue, £9539 from stamps, and £9856 from excise. Justice is administered by 17 civil and revenue judges, and 21 magistrates. For police purposes, the District is divided into the following 10 police circles (*thánás*), viz.:—Sítápur, Sidhauli, Maholi, Mahmudábád, Misrikh, Biswán, Láharpur, Tambaur, Thánágáon,

and Hargáon; with an outpost station at Nímkhar. The regular and town police force in 1883 consisted of 649 officers and men, maintained at a cost to Government of £6739; the village police or rural watch numbered 3820 men, maintained by the landholders or villagers at an estimated cost of £14,232. Average daily number of prisoners in jail (1883), 470, of whom 14 were females; total number of convicts imprisoned during the year, 1433, including 56 females.

Education is spreading steadily year by year. In 1883 there were 152 Government and aided schools in the District, attended by 5468 pupils. The Wesleyan Mission, the head-quarters of which is at Sítápur, have a school at Khairábád, and 6 girls' schools in the District. No return is available for uninspected indigenous schools. The Census of 1881 showed 4590 boys and 323 girls as under instruction, besides 20,174 males and 417 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the District is healthy, and the cantonment of Sítápur is famous for the low mortality of the British troops stationed there. There are no diseases peculiar to the District. Intermittent fever, but not of a bad type, is prevalent from August to November. Small-pox appears from March to September; a few deaths from cholera are reported every year. Cholera appeared in an epidemic form in 1869 at the Nímkhar fair, when the mortality was very considerable. The mean temperature of the District ranges from 45° F. in the cold season, to 96° F. in the hot weather; but it is often so cold as to produce hoar-frost in the early mornings, and the manufacture of ice in shallow earthenware vessels is carried on during December and January. Average annual rainfall for the fifteen years ending 1881, 39 inches, distributed as follows:—January to May, 3·14 inches; June to September, 33·71 inches; October to December, 2·15 inches. Total number of registered deaths in 1883–84, 27,625, showing a death-rate of 29·59 per thousand, as against an average of 32·49 per thousand for the previous five years. Deaths from fevers alone in 1883 numbered 14,179, and from small-pox, 8761. Charitable dispensaries, stationed at Sítápur, Mahmudábád, and Tambaur, afforded medical relief in 1883 to 566 in-door and 16,589 out-door patients. [For further information regarding Sítápur, see the *Gazetteer of Oudh* (published by authority, Allahábád, 1877), vol. iii. pp. 341–395. See also the *Report of the Settlement of Sítápur District*, conducted between 1863 and 1873, by M. S. Ferrar, Esq., C.S. (Lucknow Government Press, 1875); the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Oudh Government.]

Sítápur.—Principal *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Lakhimpur, on the east by Biswán, on the

south by Sidhauli, and on the west by Misrikh. Area, 569 square miles, of which 343 square miles are returned as under cultivation. Population (1881) 257,514, namely, males 135,475, and females 122,039. Average density of population, 452·5 persons per square mile. Hindus number 207,584; Muhammadans, 49,395; Jains, 25; and 'others,' 510. Of the 622 towns and villages, 483 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 112 between five hundred and a thousand; 23 between one and three thousand; 2 between five and ten thousand; and 2 upwards of ten thousand inhabitants. This *tahsíl* occupies the central strip of the District, comprising the 6 *parganás* of Sítápur, Hargám, Láharpur, Khairábád, Pírnagar, and Rámkot. In 1884 it contained, including the District head-quarters, 3 civil and 7 criminal courts, 3 police circles (*thánás*), a regular police force of 81 officers and men, and a rural police or village watch of 1126 *chaukidárs*.

Sítápur.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kheri District, on the east and south by the Saráyan river, and on the west by Maholi *parganá*. Area, 115 square miles, or 73,694 acres; of which 41,408 acres are returned as cultivated, 8650 acres as held revenue free, 13,842 acres as cultivable, and 9794 acres as uncultivable waste. Population (1881) 59,811, namely, males 32,879, and females 26,932. Of the 159 villages constituting the *parganá*, only 5 are held by *tálukdárs*, 115 of the remaining 159 being held in *zamíndárí* tenure by Gaur Rájputs. Government land revenue, £6624, being at the rate of 3s. 3d. per acre of cultivated area, 2s. 5d. per acre of assessed area, and 2s. per acre of total area. Tradition states that Rámá and his wife Sítá sojourned here during their wanderings, and that a town was founded on the spot by Rájá Vikramáditya, and named Sítápur in honour of Sítá. About seven centuries ago, a tribe of Chauhán Rájputs under Goheldeo, a relative of King Prithwi Ráj of Delhi, invaded the country, and drove out the Kurmís and low-caste tribes, who were then its possessors. Goheldeo and his descendants held sway for about five centuries, until the reign of Aurangzeb, when a tribe of Gaur Rájputs, led by Chandra Sen, dispossessed the Chauháns from their lands, with the exception of Sítápur, Saádatnagar, and Tehar. Chandra Sen had four sons, whose descendants still hold the greater part of the *parganá*. Sítápur was originally constituted a *parganá* by Rájá Todar Mall, the finance minister of Akbar

Sítápur.—Town, municipality, cantonment, and administrative head-quarters of Sítápur District, Oudh; situated on the banks of the Saráyan river, half-way on the road from Lucknow to Sháhjahánpur, in lat. 27° 34′ 5″ N., and long. 80° 42′ 55″ E. The population of the municipality in 1881 numbered 18,544. Sítápur itself contains 6780 inhabitants; or with its suburb of Thomsonganj, 14,764, namely, Hindus, 8839; Muhammadans, 5780; Christians, 71; and 'others,' 74.

The cantonment contains a separate population of 3780, and was garrisoned in September 1885 by the Norfolk regiment. Municipal income (1883–84), £1854, of which £1060 was derived from taxation in the form of octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1⅝d. per head of the municipal population. The town and station are picturesquely situated among fine mango groves. Annual *bázár* sales average about £48,000. Government school, attended by 170 pupils.

Sítápur.—Town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; situated a short distance from the foot of the sacred hill of Chitrakot, on the left bank of the Paisuni river, 5 miles from Karwi and 43 miles from Bánda town. Population (1881) 1977. Many old and highly venerated temples. Pilgrims flock hither all the year round, and, after bathing, measure the circuit of Chitrakot hill (5 miles) with their bodies extended flat on the ground, or by simply walking. The original name of the town appears to have been Jai Singhpura, when it was inhabited by Kols, at a time when Chitrakot was already an ancient place of worship. Police outpost; brisk trade. Village school. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Sitarámpalli (*Satrapúram*).—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 3138, occupying 537 houses. Hindus number 2983; Muhammadans, 71; and Christians, 84.—*See* also CHATRAPUR.

Sítárámpur.—One of the abandoned coal-mines of the Ránígan j coal-field in Bardwán District, Bengal. There are five pits, one of which was opened in 1847 and the remaining four in 1864. Total out-turn of coal in 1866, 78,490 *maunds*. The mine was abandoned in consequence of the poor quality of the coal.

Sitoung.—River of Burma.—*See* SIT-TAUNG.

Sitpur.—Municipal village in Alípur *tahsíl*, Muzaffargarh District, Punjab, situated 3 miles from the Chenáb, and 11 miles south of Alípur town. Population (1881) 2035, namely, Muhammadans, 1132; Hindus, 898; and Sikhs, 5. Number of houses, 369. Municipal income (1883–84), £158, or an average of 1s. 6½d. per head. An ancient town, formerly the capital of a dynasty known as the Náhar princes, founded in the middle of the 15th century, the 26th descendant of whom is a *jamadár* of *chaprásís*, and receives a small allowance for looking after the family tombs. The town, which is completely enclosed by a thick screen of date-palms, is very irregularly built, and has a dilapidated appearance. Small trade in agricultural produce. Sitpur formerly carried on a considerable manufacture of paper, and the industry still lingers, but at the point of extinction. The public buildings include a police station, municipal committee house, and school.

Sit-taung.—Township in Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma, lying on both banks of the Sit-taung river, the larger

portion being on the east side. In the north-east the country is hilly, but in the south it is low and subject to inundation; in the west the land is extremely fertile. Chief towns—SIT-TAUNG and WIN-BA-DAW.

Sit-taung.—Town in Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 17° 26′ 5″ N., and long. 96° 57′ 30″ E., on the left bank of the Sit-taung river, 50 miles by water below Shwe-gyin town. The head-quarters of both the Sit-taung Division and township until a few years ago, when the station of the Assistant Commissioner was transferred to the more central town of KYAIK-TO. To the north-east of Sit-taung stretch wide plains; the court-house stands on the high ground east of the town. *Bázár* and police post. Population (1878) 978; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. The town of Sit-taung was founded about 582 A.D. by Tha-ma-la, the first king of Pegu.

Sit-taung.—River of the Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; rises in the hills in Upper Burma, about 25 miles north-east of Te-me-thin, and about 130 above Taung-ngu town; flows southwards through the Districts of Taung-ngu and Shwe-gyin, and falls into the sea at the head of the Gulf of Martaban. The Sit-taung is remarkable for its trumpet-shaped mouth, the velocity and dangerous nature of the tidal wave which sweeps up it, and the enormous quantity of silt suspended in its water. Between Taung-ngu and Tan-ta-bin, a village about 10 miles lower down, the Sit-taung widens considerably, but is difficult of navigation, owing to its winding channel and numerous sandbanks. Below this it narrows, and the current is rapid, and from Mun southwards to Shwe-gyin town, navigation is almost impossible. South of Shwe-gyin, where it receives from the east the united waters of the Shwe-gyin, and the Mut-ta-ma streams, the river gradually widens, and the current alone impedes the ascent of large boats. Soon after passing Sit-taung town, it takes a large curve west and south, and then rapidly broadens till it falls into the sea. Following the crest of the bore is a heavy chopping sea of sand and water, as dangerous almost as the tidal wave itself. The tide is in the dry season felt even as high as Mun; but during the rains, owing to the greatly increased volume of water brought down, as far only as Shwe-gyin. Boats rarely pass below Ka-ya-su at the mouth of the Paing-kywon or Ka-ya-su creek, which, until the new canal to Myit-kyo was opened, formed the highway of communication during the rains, and in the dry season for some fourteen days in each month before, at, and after spring tides, to the Pegu river and thence to Rangoon. During the rains, communication with Maulmain — at this period entirely by boat—is kept up through the Win-ba-daw creek, the entrance to which is about 7 miles below Sit-taung town. Above Ka-ya-su are some extensive sandbanks covered by 6 or 7 feet of water at neap floods.

Area drained by the Sit-taung between the Pegu Yoma and the Paung-laung mountains, about 22,000 square miles, of which about 7000 lie

within British territory; total course as the crow flies, about 350 miles, of which the last 175 are through Lower Burma. On the west, the banks are uniformly low; but on the east, hills abut on the river in several places. Principal tributaries—on the west, the Swa, the Chaung-sauk, the Ka-baung, the Pyu, and the Kun; and on the east, the Kwe-the, the Thit-nan-tha, the Kan-ni, the Thauk-ye-gat, the Yauk-thwa-wa, the Kyauk-gyi, the Shwe-gyin and Mut-ta-ma, which unite at their mouths. By the inhabitants of the villages on either bank of the Sit-taung, this stream is sometimes called the Paung-laung, and sometimes the Taung-ngu river.

Sivagangá.—*Zamíndárí* in Madura District, Madras Presidency. Area, about 1220 square miles; number of villages, 1721. Population (1874) 432,023; (1881) 382,151, namely, males 175,741, and females 206,410, occupying 75,315 houses. Hindus number 345,035; Muhammadans, 18,989; and Christians, 18,127. The *peshkash* (fixed revenue) paid to Government is £25,864. The *zamíndárí* was formerly part of Rámnád or the Setupatí's territory. About 1730, Kutta Tevan, 11th Setupatí, surrendered to the *pálegár* of Nalkotái ('four forts'), Seshavarna Tevan, two-fifths of his kingdom, which thenceforth became independent of Rámnád. In 1772, the *pálegár's* country was reduced by the British under Colonel Joseph Smith; and the Rájá was killed while endeavouring to escape by one of the gates of the fort of Kálaiyár Kovil. The Rání, with some of her friends, escaped to Dindigul, where they were protected by Haidar Alí. Later on, she was restored to the *zamíndárí;* but on her death in 1800, Seshavarna's line became extinct. In July of the following year, Udaya Tevan was proclaimed *zamíndár* of Sivagangá. The permanent settlement of the estate was made with him in 1803. The Sivagangá estate has figured in the civil courts for many years in one of the most notable of Hindu succession cases. The present *zamíndár* is in extremely narrow circumstances; the property being still in the hands of creditors, and likely to remain so for many years to come.

Sivagangá.—Chief town of Sivagangá *zamíndárí*, Madura District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 51′ N., long. 78° 31′ 50″ E. Situated about 25 miles east of Madura town. Population (1881) 8343, occupying 1661 houses. Hindus number 7528; Muhammadans, 719; and Christians, 96.

Sivagangá.—Hill in Bangalore District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 13° 10′ N., and long. 77° 17′ E., 4559 feet above sea-level. Many religious associations are connected with this hill, and its face is crowded with sacred buildings and inscriptions. On the east its outline is supposed to resemble a bull, on the west Ganesha, on the north a serpent, and on the south a *linga.* The number of steps leading to the summit is reckoned equal to the number of *yojanas* hence to Benares, and

consequently the ascent is held to be a vicarious pilgrimage to that city. The two principal temples on the northern face, dedicated to Gangádhareswára and Honna Devamma, are formed out of large natural caverns. On the eastern face is a Lingáyat *math*, or monastery. The village of the same name is at the northern base of the hill. Population (1871) 721; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. The houses are all of stone, and form one street, approached by a gateway, through which the car of the god is drawn at religious festivals.

Sivagiri.—Town in Sankaranainárkoil *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 20′ 20″ N., long. 77° 28′ E. Population (1881) 13,632, namely, males 6801, and females 6831, occupying 2976 houses. Hindus number 12,952; Muhammadans, 407; and Christians, 273. Sivagiri is the head-quarters of Sivagiri *zamíndárí*, which pays a *peshkash* (revenue) to Government of £5458. The cattle here are of a superior breed. Police station; post-office.

Sivakási.—Town in Satúr *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 27′ 10″ N., long. 77° 50′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 10,833, namely, males 5269, and females 5564, occupying 2273 houses. Hindus number 9484; Muhammadans, 1253; and Christians, 96. Active trade with Travancore, chiefly in tobacco. Police station; post-office.

Sivasamudram (or *Sivanásamudaram*, lit. 'Sea of Siva').—Island formed by the branching of the Káveri (Cauvery) river into two streams, each of which makes a descent of about 200 feet in a series of picturesque rapids and waterfalls; situated in the Madras District of Coimbatore, just outside the frontier of Mysore; about 3 miles long by ¾ of a mile broad. The island is properly called Heggura, but the name of Sivasamudram is derived from an ancient city (lat. 12° 16′ N., long. 77° 14′ E.), of which a few remains lie strewed around. This city is said to have been founded in the 16th century by Gangá Rájá, a scion of the Vijayanagar line. His dynasty only endured for two generations; and the tragic story of its end is locally associated with the various spots that make up the picturesque scenery of the waterfalls. In 1791, at the time of the advance of the British army, under Lord Cornwallis, upon Seringapatam, Tipú Sultán laid waste the surrounding country, and drove all the inhabitants and the cattle into this island. Subsequently the whole area became overgrown with jungle, and the old stone bridges connecting it with the mainland were impassable.

About 1824, their repair was undertaken by a confidential servant of the Resident of Mysore, named Rámaswámi Mudaliyár. He expended several thousand pounds on the work, and was rewarded by the British Government with the title of Janopakára Kámkartá or Public Benefactor. He also received a *jágír* or rent-free estate from the British Government,

with a rental of £800 a year, and seven villages from the Mysore State, yielding an additional £900. The new bridges are built on pillars of hewn stone founded in the rocky bed of the stream, and connected by stone girders. A bungalow has also been erected by the *jágírdár*, where European visitors are entertained.

The most favourable time to visit the falls is in the rainy season, as during the winter months the island is malarious. On the western branch of the river, which forms the boundary between Mysore and Coimbatore, are the Gangaua Chukki Falls, about 2 miles below the bungalow. The waters divide round a small island called Ettikúr, and dash with a deafening roar over vast boulders of rock in a cloud of foam. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton wrote: 'I have never seen any cataract that for grandeur could be compared with this.' The falls on the eastern branch of the river, called the Bara Chukki, are more easily accessible, and display a yet greater volume of water. In the rainy season an unbroken sheet, a quarter of a mile wide, pours over the rocks; but during the dry months this separates into several distinct cascades. In the centre is a horse-shoe recess, down which the principal stream falls, and having been collected into a narrow gorge, rushes forward to again precipitate itself 30 feet into the deep pool below.

Siwálik Hills. — Mountain range in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces, and in Sirmur (Náhan) State and Hushiárpur District, Punjab; lying between 29° 58′ 4″ and 30° 23′ N. lat., and between 77° 45′ and 78° 11′ 28″ E. long. The chain runs parallel with the Himálayan system, from Hardwár on the Ganges to the banks of the Beas (Biás). Geologically speaking, it belongs to the tertiary deposits of the outer Himálayas; and it is chiefly composed of low sandstone and conglomerate hills, the solidified and upheaved detritus of the great range in its rear. Rising from the bed of the Ganges, at the point where that river debouches upon the plains of Saháranpur, the Siwálik chain runs across Dehra Dún District in a north-westerly direction, till it dips again for a while into the Jumna (Jamuná) valley. The northern slope leads gently down into the vale of Dehra Dún, a beautiful glen or depression between the Himálayas and their outlying Siwálik subordinates; but southward, a steep and bold escarpment falls abruptly toward the Saháranpur plain. A thick forest of *sál* and *sain* clothes the lower sides, while on the higher crests pine woods indicate a cooler climate. Wild elephants abound; and the fauna in this section also includes tigers, sloth-bears, leopards, hyænas, spotted deer, hog, and monkeys. Beyond the Jumna, the Siwálik chain once more rises up in Sirmur State, the valley to the north, in continuation of that of Dehra, here bearing the name of the Khiárda Dún. Thence it passes through the Simla Hill States, dips so as to allow the passage of the Sutlej (Satlaj) through a depression in its line, and rises once more in

British territory in Hushiárpur District. The range runs in the same general direction till it reaches the Beas (Biás) basin, where it terminates near Ditárpur, in a cluster of round undulating hills, crowned by the Government bamboo forests of Bindrában and Karampur. The intermediate valley between the Siwáliks and the Himálayas, in Hushiárpur District, is known as the Jaswan Dún. After leaving the Sutlej, the range becomes more and more a mere broad table-land, at first enclosed by sandy hillocks, but finally spreading out into minor spurs of irregular formation. This portion of the chain consists of a barren soil, rarely interspersed with patches of forest or cultivated fields.

The total length of the range from the Ganges to the Beas is about 200 miles, and its average breadth about 10 miles. The highest peaks have an elevation of about 3500 feet above the sea. The principal pass is that of Mohan in Dehra Dún District, by which the main road from Saháranpur to Dehra and Mussooree (Masuri) traverses the range. All the great rivers which run at right angles to the Siwáliks—the Ganges, Jumna, Sutlej, and Beas—have worn themselves valleys through this chain. Its outlying continuation may be traced east of the Ganges for 600 miles, but of such inferior elevation as to attract little attention.

The palæontology of the Siwáliks possesses unusual interest from the abundant fossil remains of large vertebrates, especially mammals. The most remarkable are the sivatherium—a gigantic ruminant, whose dimensions exceeded those of the rhinoceros—and various quadrumana, whose occurrence in tertiary deposits was first noticed among these hills.

Siwán.—Village in Bánsdih *tahsíl*, Balliá District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 01′ 36″ N., and long. 84° 07′ 14″ E., 3 miles south of the Sikandarpur-Bánsdih road, 12 miles from Bánsdih town. Population (1881) 2710. The place was founded by a family of Shaikhs who are said to have come from Medina in Arabia. The descendants of the original proprietors are still in possession, with the exception of a small share which has been privately sold. The village contains 15 sugar factories.

Siyali.—*Táluk* and town, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SHIYALI.

Siyána (*Saiána*).—Ancient town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 37′ 55″ N., and long. 78° 6′ 20″ E., on a raised site, near the Anúpshahr branch of the Ganges Canal; 19 miles north-east of Bulandshahr town on the Garhmukhteswar road. Population (1881) 6532, namely, 4255 Hindus and 2277 Muhammadans. The name is said to be a corruption of Sainban or 'the forest of rest,' because Bálárám, on his way from Muttra (Mathurá) to Hastinápur, slept here one night, and was hospitably entertained by *fakirs*, who had excavated a tank in the centre of a vast forest. It was formerly under the rule of the Dor Rájputs, who were succeeded by the Taga

Bráhmans, and still later by the Shaikhs under Abdúl Fath, a *fakír*, in the reign of Alá-ud-dín Ghori. Capital of a *mahál* in Akbar's time, but now a poor collection of mud huts. Indigo factory, trade in safflower. Police station, post-office, village school. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Skardo. — Town in Balti State, Kashmír, Northern India. — *See* ISKARDOH.

Soane.—River and canal in Bengal.—*See* SON.

Sobhápur.—Town in Sohágpur *tahsíl*, Hosangábád District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 4883, namely, Hindus, 3588; Kabír-panthís, 215; Muhammadans, 576; Jains, 157; non-Hindu aborigines, 347.

Sobnálí.—River in Khulná District, Bengal; also known as the Kundriá and the Bengdaha, and in its lower reaches as the Guntiákhálí. It takes its rise from a number of small watercourses in the Bayrá marsh, near the village of Báltiá, and, after a south-easterly course, ultimately joins the Kholpetua. The Sobnálí is so called from its passing the large village of that name. It forms one of the principal boat routes between Calcutta and the eastern Districts.

Sobráon.—Village in Lahore District, Punjab; situated on the west bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), in lat. 31° 7′ N., and long. 74° 54′ E., near the south-east corner of the District. Population (1881) 4164. Opposite this village, on the east bank of the river, in Firozpur District, lies the famous battle-field where Sir Hugh (afterwards Lord) Gough gained his decisive victory of 10th February 1846, which brought to a close the first Sikh war, and led to the occupation of Lahore by a British force. The Sikhs had taken up a strong position on the east side of the Sutlej, protecting the Haríkí ford, while their rear rested upon the village of Sobráon. The battle took place on the Firozpur side, where the Sikhs gallantly held their earthworks until almost their last man had fallen. Comparatively few made their way back across the river. This battle immediately cleared the whole left bank of the Sutlej of the Sikh force, and the victorious army crossed into the Punjab by a bridge of boats opposite Firozpur, and took possession of Lahore.

Soentha Kalán. — Large agricultural village in Khutáhan *tahsíl*, Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 5′ 32″ N., long. 82° 34′ 28″ E., 8 miles north of Khutáhan town. Population (1881) 2639, chiefly Kewats or Keuts.

Sohág, Upper.—Canal in Lahore and Montgomery Districts, Punjab, one of the 'Upper Sutlej Inundation Canals.' Lat. 30° 28′ to 30° 46′ N., long. 73° 33′ to 74° 21′ E. Has its head-waters from the Sutlej, in Lahore District, near the town of Mokhal, whence it flows on to Pák-pattan in Montgomery, and tails into the Pára-nalá. Width of bed, 40

feet. The canal is dry during the cold weather when the Sutlej is low. It usually flows from April to October; and during the rains from July to September it carries a considerable body of water to tracts in which, without its aid, cultivation would be impossible. The canal irrigates on an average about 40,000 acres; but the area is variable, and in 1880–81 it rose to over 69,000 acres. The upper portion runs in a natural *náli*, which was used as a canal previous to British rule. In 1827, Sardár Govind Singh, of Mokhal, a large resident proprietor, compelled the people to repair the canal, which was done with forced labour; but it again fell into disuse. In 1855, Colonel Anderson connected it with the Sutlej, since which time a fair supply of water has always been obtained. The canal has been much extended of late years, and in 1880–81 it afforded irrigation to 215 estates.

A second channel, the LOWER SOHAG CANAL, is confined to Montgomery District. Formerly the bed of a hill stream, it remained dry for many years, till a Kárdár of Hiráli joined it to the Sutlej, by a cut of about 3 miles in length. It has hitherto afforded but little irrigation, the maximum area in 1881–82 being 3400 acres. It is now being enlarged and improved, and is expected to provide water by direct flow to an area as large as that benefited by the Upper Sohág Canal, at present lying waste for want of means of irrigation.

Soháqpur.—Eastern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Area, 1114 square miles, with 1 town and 444 villages. Number of houses, 30,253, namely, occupied 28,814; and unoccupied 1439. Population (1881) 135,765, namely, males 70,023, and females 65,742; average density, 121·87 persons per square mile. Of the total area of the *tahsíl*, 171 square miles are comprised within the three revenue-free estates or *zamíndáris* of Chhatar, Báriám Pagárá, and Pachmarhi. Even within the Government (*khálsá*) portion of the Sub-division (943 square miles), 567 square miles are alienated lands, paying neither Government revenue, quit-rent, nor *peshkash*, leaving only 376 square miles assessed for Government revenue, of which 248 square miles are returned as under cultivation, 74 square miles as cultivable but not under tillage, and 54 square miles as uncultivable waste. The total adult agricultural population (male and female) was returned in 1881 at 33,689 in the *khálsá* tract, or 25·84 per cent. of the whole population. Average area of cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult agriculturist, 6 acres. Total Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £10,200, or an average of 1s. 3¾d. per cultivated acre. Total rental, including cesses, paid by the cultivator, £26,647, or an average of 3s. 3d. per cultivated acre. In 1883, Soháqpur *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal and 2 civil courts, 3 police stations (*thánás*), 5 outpost stations (*chaukís*), and a regular police force numbering 93 officers and men.

Sohágpur. — Town and municipality in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Sohágpur *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 27° 52′ N., and long. 78° 1′ E., on the high road from Bombay, 30 miles east of Hoshangábád town. Population (1881) 7027, namely, Hindus, 4603; Muhammadans, 1946; Kabírpanthís, 237; Christians, 88; Jains, 45; Pársís, 8; and non-Hindu aborigines, 100. Municipal revenue (1883–84), £782, of which £591 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 8½d. per head. The stone fort, now dismantled, was built about 1790 by Faujdár Khán, a Muhammadan *jágírdár*, who held the country round for the Rájás of Nágpur. In 1803, Wazír Muhammad of Bhopál attacked the fort without success. The town had for about ten years a mint, which struck a rupee worth 13 annas, now very rare. Manufactures, silk-weaving and lac-melting. Sohágpur contains a *tahsílí*, police station-house, and good *sarái* (native inn); and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway has a station at the town (distance from Bombay 494 miles). Six miles to the east, at the village of Sobhápur, an important weekly market is held, with a large trade in country cloth from Narsinghpur and elsewhere. A Gond Rájá lives at Sobhápur.

Sohán. — River in Ráwal Pindi and Jehlam (Jhelum) Districts, Punjab. Rises in the Murree (Marri) Hills a few miles from the sanitarium of Murree, in lat. 33° 52′ N., and long. 73° 27′ E., and flows down deep valleys for the first 10 miles of its course, till it reaches the plains near the ruined Ghakkar fortress at Pharwála. Thence it takes a south-westerly direction, and finally joins the Indus 10 miles below Mokhad. A magnificent bridge conveys the Grand Trunk Road across the stream, 3 miles east of Ráwal Pindi. Quicksands are numerous in the river bed, and often dangerous in the lower part, occasionally swallowing up even elephants. Fordable except in the floods; no ferries. The water is but little diverted for mills, and hardly at all for irrigation, as the heavy inundations prevent the construction of permanent cuts. Innumerable torrents empty themselves into the channel from ravines on either side, and carry off the drainage of the surrounding country.

Soháwal.—Native State in Baghelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Baghelkhand Agency, Central India. The territories of the State lie in two distinct patches, separated from each other by Kothi; the northern portion is also so intermixed with lands belonging to Panna, that it is difficult to calculate the area of Soháwal accurately. It is probably about 240 square miles; and the population (1881) 37,747, namely, males 18,887, and females 18,860. Hindus number 33,460; Muhammadans, 1061; and 'others,' 3226, namely, Kols 2430, and Gonds 796. The gross revenue amounts to about £10,000, but two-thirds of this has been alienated in rent-free tenures and religious and charitable grants, leaving the chief an estimated revenue

of £3200 with which to conduct the administration. The State of Soháwal was formerly a portion of Rewá territory; but about the middle of the 16th century, when Amar Singh was ruler of Rewá, his son Fateh Singh threw off his father's authority, and established his independence as chief of Soháwal. His descendant, Lál Aman Singh, was found in possession on the British occupation of Baghelkhand, and was consequently confirmed in his State, on his tendering a deed of allegiance. In consequence of the improvidence and misrule of its chiefs, the State has more than once come under British management. It was last made over in 1871, free of debt, to the present Rájá of Soháwal, Lál Sher Jang Bahádur Singh, who is by race a Baghel Rájput. A small police force is maintained of about 50 men.

Soháwal. — Chief town of Soháwal State, Baghelkhand, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 34′ 35″ N., and long. 80° 48′ 50″ E., on the river Satna, which is here crossed by a ford, and on the high road from Satna to Naugáon (Nowgong), distant 6 miles from the station of Satna on the East Indian Railway between Alláhábád and Jabalpur. Elevation above the sea, 1059 feet. Thornton states that this town was formerly defended by a fort, which is in ruins.

Sohi-ong.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam; presided over by a *lyng-doh*. Population (1872) 1951.

Sohna.—Town and municipality, with sulphur spring, in Gurgáon *tahsíl*, Gurgáon District, Punjab; situated in lat. 28° 14′ N., and long. 77° 7′ E., at the foot of the Mewát hills, 15 miles from Gurgáon town, on the main road to Alwár. Ancient Rájput settlement, first of Hindu, then of Musalmán Rájputs, whose prosperity is attested by numerous old mosques. The original proprietors, however, who had settled in Jálandhar (Jullúndur) after their expulsion from Sohna, being directed in a dream by their patron saint, set out once more to recover their patrimony, and after a bloody battle (*circa* 1160), regained possession of the town, which their descendants still hold. On the British conquest in 1803, the Játs of Bhartpur were found in power. Population (1881) 7374, namely, Hindus, 4571; Muhammadans, 2764; Jains, 34; Sikh, 1; and 'others,' 4. Number of houses, 637. Municipal income (1883–84), £451, or an average of 1s. 2½d. per head. Sohna is a thriving little town, with considerable local trade in grain and sugar, and a manufacture of glass bangles. The place is remarkable for its hot sulphurous spring, situated in the middle of the town, and enclosed by a substantial reservoir, covered in with a dome-shaped roof. Several tanks for medicinal bathing surround the central building. The water has a temperature varying from 115° to 125° F., and is considered a specific for the well-known 'Delhi ulcers.' It possesses remarkable curative properties in rheumatism and skin diseases.

Soh-ráh and **Soh-ráh-punjí.**—Petty State and Village in the Khási Hills, Assam.—*See* CHERRA and CHERRA-PUNJI.

Sohwal.—Agricultural village in Zamániah *tahsíl*, Gházipur District North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 33′ 24″ N., and long. 83° 41′ 3″ E., on the Gházipur-Gahmar road, 9½ miles from Zamániah town. Population (1881) 3934. Village school.

Sojitra.—Town in Petlad Sub-division, Baroda State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 32′ N., long. 72° 46′ E. Population (1881) 10,253 namely, males 5264, and females 4989. In ancient times, Sojitra was the capital of a Rájput principality. Magistrates' office, police lines, dispensary, post-office, two schools (one for girls).

Solan.—Small cantonment and hill sanitarium in Simla District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 55′ N., and long. 77° 9′ E., on the southern slope of the Krol mountain, on the cart-road between Kálka and Simla, 30 miles from the latter station. Ground acquired for a rifle range in 1863–64; barracks afterwards erected, which usually accommodate a half battalion of European troops during the hot months.

Soláni.—River in Saháranpur and Muzaffarnagar Districts, North-Western Provinces. Rises in the Siwálik Hills, from the Mohan Pass, flows in a general south-westerly direction, and falls into the Ganges, after a total course of about 55 miles. A magnificent aqueduct of brickwork, with 15 arches, each 50 feet in span, conveys the waters of the Ganges Canal across the valley of this river near Rurki (Roorkee), and the Soláni itself flows through the open passage beneath. In Muzaffarnagar District, the Soláni formerly occupied a deep channel of its own; but of late years it has turned aside into a long line of marshy lakes (*jhíls*), which mark the ancient bed of the Ganges. The *parganá* of Gordhanpur, which comprises the delta between the Soláni and the Ganges, consists in great part of swamps fed by the overflow from this river, and percolation from the Ganges Canal. Efforts have been made by the Irrigation Department to check the inundation, and drain the swampy area, but hitherto with only partial success.

Solavandán.—Town in Madura District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SHOLAVANDAN.

Somá-male.—Mountain in the territory of Coorg, Southern India. Somá-male is one of the highest peaks in the main range of the Western Ghát, about 6 miles south-east of Tadiandamol, overlooking the Kodantora pass. It is sacred to Maletambiran, a Malayálam god.

Somástipur.—Trading village in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated on the south bank of the Burí Gandak river, about 2 miles west of Nagarbasti, on the road from Tájpur to Ruserá. Population (1881) 1456. Large export of *ghí*. Oil-seeds are also exported, and food-grains and salt received in exchange. Somástipur is now the

junction station for the Muzaffarpur branch line of the Tirhút State Railway. Fine railway workshop, and rifle range for the railway volunteers.

Someswari.—River in Garo Hills District, Assam.—*See* SAMESWARI.

Somná.—Village in Khair *tahsíl*, Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces; situated 14½ miles north-west of Alígarh town, on the Grand Trunk Road. A station on the East Indian Railway, 889 miles from Calcutta (Howrah), and 65 from Delhi. Population (1881) 1743. Police station; post-office. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Somnáth (*Deo Pattan*, *Prabhás Pattan*, *Veráwal Pattan*, or *Pattan Somnáth*).—Ancient town in Junágarh State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 22° 4′ N., and long. 71° 26′ E., at the eastern extremity of a bay on the south coast of the peninsula of Káthiáwár. Population (1881) 6644. The western headland of the above-mentioned bay is occupied by the port of VERAWAL, which gives to the locality its more common name of Veráwal Pattan. On the edge of the sea, nearly half-way between the two towns, stands a large and conspicuous temple, dedicated to the Hindu god Siva. A few hundred yards behind this temple is the reservoir called Bhát Kund, the traditional scene of the death of Srí Krishna. Farther inland rises the wild hill district called the Gir, and in the remote distance stands out the sacred mountain which the people of Káthiáwár delight to call the royal GIRNAR. The country near Somnáth is full of memorials of Krishna, the principal centre of interest being a spot to the east of the city, where, near the union of three beautiful streams, the body of the hero is said to have been burnt.

Somnáth is a gloomy place—a city of ruins and graves. On the west, the plain is covered with Musalmán tombs; on the east are numerous Hindu shrines and monuments. The city was protected on the south by a fort, and on the remaining three sides by a deep trench cut out of the solid rock. The fort, situated on the shore within a few feet of high-water mark, does not depart in any important particular from the general design of Gujarát fortresses. It is square in form, with large gateways in the centre of each side, outworks or barbicans in front of these, and second gateways in the sides of the outworks.

Somnáth is now especially famous for the manufacture of door locks made of wood and iron. It is the head-quarters of a *mahál* or revenue division, with the courts of a revenue and judicial officer. Though some wealthy bankers and merchants reside here, the monied classes have principally taken themselves to the neighbouring port of Veráwal. Dispensary; vernacular and girls' schools.

Before its capture by Mahmúd of Ghazní (1024–1026 A.D.), little is

known of the history of Somnáth. In the 8th century, this part of Káthiáwár is said to have been in the hands of a line of Rájput princes bearing the surname of Cháuda. These chiefs probably owned allegiance to that powerful Rájput family, the Chálukyas or Solankis, who reigned at Kalyán, near Bedar, in the Deccan. Mahmúd of Ghazní, after his invasion, left behind him a Muhammadan governor at Somnáth. Subsequently the Vájás (a sub-branch of the Ráthor tribe) acquired Somnáth, and revived the glories of the ancient fane. But it was again overthrown by Alagh Khán Sirká in 1300. From this date Muhammadan supremacy prevailed. Afterwards, on the downfall of the Mughal power, Somnáth was ruled at different times by the Shaikh of Mángrol and the Ráná of Porbandar; but was finally conquered by the Nawáb of Junágarh, in whose hands it remains.

The legend of Mahmúd, 'The Idol-Breaker,' at Somnáth, is examined, and its inaccuracies are exposed, in article INDIA, vol. vi. of this edition of the *Imperial Gazetteer*.

Somnáthpur.—Village in Mysore District, Mysore State; celebrated for its temple of Prasanna Chenna Kesava. According to an inscription at the entrance, it was completed in 1270 by a prince of the Hoysala Ballála dynasty. The whole is most elaborately ornamented; and the structure is completed by three *vimánas* or pyramidal towers surmounting the triple shrine. Round the exterior base are portrayed the leading incidents in the *Rámáyana*, *Mahábhárata*, and *Bhágavata*, carved in relief in potstone, the termination of each chapter and section being indicated respectively by a closed and half-closed door. The number of separate sculptured images is 74. The workmanship is attributed to Jakanáchári, the famous sculptor and architect of the Hoysala Ballála kings, under whom Hindu art in Mysore reached its culminating point. There is also at Somnáthpur a large temple of Siva in ruins.

Sompet.—*Zamíndári táluk* of Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 54 square miles. Population (1881) 56,578, namely, males 27,193, and females 29,385; occupying 10,376 houses in 2 towns and 73 villages. Hindus number 56,426; Muhammadans, 150; and Christians, 2.

Sompet.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Sompet *táluk*; situated near the high road between Berhampur and Chicacole, and connected with it by a road 2 miles from the travellers' bungalow at Kanchili. Population (1881) 2836, occupying 582 houses. Hindus number 2824; Muhammadans, 10; and Christians, 2. Head-quarters of a deputy *tahsíldár* and native magistrate.

Somsa Parwat (*Samse Parwat*).—Peak of the Western Ghats in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency; 6300 feet high. Lat. 13° 8′

N., long. 75° 18′ E. The hill is used as a sanitarium by the European residents in South Kánara; there are two bungalows, but no village; easy access by road (56 miles) from Mangalore. The climate, except from June to September, during the south-west monsoon, is delicious, and for sportsmen there is abundance of game. Wood, water, and grass are also plentiful. There is no plateau, properly speaking, but undulating ground along the ridge of the mountain for some miles. English fruits, flowers, and vegetables grow well, and in most respects the climate and soil resemble those of KUNUR (Coonoor).

Somwarpet.—Town in Coorg, Southern India; situated in North Coorg on an open plateau of equal elevation with Merkára, on the high road to Monjirábád, 27 miles north of Merkára. Population (1881) 1528. Municipal income (1882–83), £79. School, post-office, and market.

Son (*Soane* or *Sone;* said to be derived from the Sanskrit *Sona*, 'crimson').—A great river of Central India, and (excluding the Jumna) the chief tributary of the Ganges on its right bank. It rises in 22° 41′ N. lat., and 82° 7′ E. long., in the Amarkantak highlands, about 3500 feet above the sea. This table-land also supplies the sister sources of the NARBADA and the MAHANADI, and is included in a tract of wild country recently transferred to the State of Rewá. Thence the Son flows in a generally northern direction, often forming the boundary between the Central Provinces and the States comprised in the Baghelkhand Agency, through an intricate maze of hills, until it strikes upon the KAIMUR range, which here constitutes the southern wall of the Gangetic plain. At this point, in 24° 5′ N. lat., and 81° 6′ E. long., it is diverted to the east, and holds that direction in a tolerably straight course until it ultimately falls into the Ganges, about 10 miles above Dinápur, in 25° 41′ 30″ N. lat., and 84° 52′ E. long., after a total length of about 465 miles. Its upper course, of about 300 miles, lies in a wild hilly country, which has been but imperfectly explored. In its lower section, of about 160 miles, it first flows across the British District of Mírzápur in the North-Western Provinces, and then, passing into Behar, separates Sháhábád from Gayá and Patná. Its principal tributaries are—on the left bank, the Johila and Mahánadi, both in the upper portion of its course; and on the right bank, the Gopat, Rehand, Kanhar, and Koel, the last of which, and by far the most important, falls into it nearly opposite the famous hill fort of Rohtasgarh. There are no towns on its banks, nor even commercial marts of any magnitude. So far as regards navigation, its stream is mainly used for floating down large rafts of bamboos and a little timber. In the rainy season, native boats of large tonnage occasionally proceed for a short distance up stream; but navigation is then rendered dangerous by the extraordinary violence of the flood, and during the rest of the year becomes

impossible, owing to the small depth of water. The utility of the Son for irrigation will be dwelt upon at length in the following article. The fish found in this river are said to be superior to those of the Ganges.

In the lower portion of its course, the Son is marked by several striking characteristics. Its bed is enormously wide, in some places stretching for 3 miles from bank to bank. During the greater part of the year, this broad channel is merely a waste of drifting sand, with an insignificant stream that is nearly everywhere fordable. The discharge of water at this time is estimated to fall as low as 620 cubic feet per second. But in the rainy season, and especially just after a storm has burst on the plateau of Central India, the river rises with incredible rapidity. The entire rainfall of an area of about 21,300 square miles requires to find an outlet by this channel, which frequently proves unable to carry off the total flood discharge, calculated at 830,000 cubic feet per second. These heavy floods are of short duration, seldom lasting more than four days; but in recent years they have wrought much destruction in the low-lying plains of Sháhábád. Near the site of the great dam at Dehri, the Son is crossed by the Grand Trunk Road on a stone causeway; and lower down, near Koelwár, the East Indian Railway has been carried across on a lattice girder bridge. This bridge, begun for a single line of rails in 1855, and finally completed for a double line in 1870, has a total length of 4199 feet from back to back of the abutments, divided between 28 spans, which stand upon piers sunk in wells 30 feet below the level of low water.

The Son possesses historical interest as being probably identical with the Erannoboas of Greek geographers. Arrian and Strabo, both apparently repeating the description of an eye-witness, Megasthenes, represent Palibothra, the capital of Magadha in the 3rd century B.C., as standing near the confluence of the Erannoboas with the Ganges. The Erannoboas they also agree in calling the third largest river in India, next after the Ganges and the Indus. Now, Palibothra is undoubtedly the same as the Pátaliputra of the Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsiang, and the modern Patná. Some authorities, including in recent times Mr. Beglar, Assistant to the Archæological Surveyor, have been disposed to find the Erannoboas in the GANDAK or *Hiranya-vati*. But General Cunningham himself, here following the arguments of Mr Ravenshaw, has no hesitation in identifying the Erannoboas with the Son, which anciently bore the name of *Hiranya-báhu*, or 'the golden-armed' (a title of Siva). In addition, we know that the junction of the Son with the Ganges has been gradually receding farther westwards. Old channels of the Son have been found between Bánkipur and Dinápur, and even below the present site of Patná. In the *Bengal Atlas* of 1772, the junction is marked near Maner, and it would seem to have

been at the same spot in the 17th century. It is now about 10 miles higher up the Ganges.

Son Canals.—A grand system of irrigation works in the Province of Behar, taking its name from the Son river. It consists of a series of canals in the three Districts of Sháhábád, Gayá, and Patná, which all branch off from an anicut or dam thrown across the Son at the village of Dehri. The project dates from 1855, when Colonel Dickens, on behalf of the East India Irrigation Company, proposed the construction of canals, both for irrigation and navigation, from Chanár to Patná—a scheme subsequently extended to Mírzápur on the west, and Monghyr on the east. In 1867, the Company obtained the sanction of Government to their plans, on the understanding that their concession would fail if they did not make satisfactory progress. Beyond applying for a guarantee of interest on their capital, the Company scarcely commenced operations; and finally, in 1867, their claims were bought up by Government, who forthwith took up the enterprise in earnest, though with curtailed designs.

The general plan of the works comprises the Dehri anicut, a Main Western Canal, branching off from the anicut on the left bank, and a Main Eastern Canal branching off on the right. As a matter of fact, these two main canals remain unfinished; and the actual working of the system is confined to their subordinate branches.

Dehri.—The little village of Dehri, or Dehri *ghát*, situated on the left bank of the river, near the 338th milestone from Calcutta on the Grand Trunk Road, is the head-quarters of the engineering staff and a centre of great activity. Work was begun here in 1869 by the construction of a tramway to Dhodhand or Dhaudang in the neighbouring hills, whence all the building-stone has been brought. At the same time, the workshops were commenced, from the designs and under the supervision of Mr. Fouracres, whose originality and energy are impressed upon every department of the undertaking. These workshops are substantial stone buildings with iron roofs; they comprise a foundry, sawmill, blacksmiths' and carpenters' shop, fitting-shop, and boatyard. They have turned out all the wood and iron work required for the canals, and also take private orders. In 1872, a training school was opened at Dehri for both Europeans and natives, with the object of providing a skilléd staff of subordinates for the Public Works Department.

The Anicut or dam consists of a mass of masonry, 12,500 feet long by 120 feet broad, thrown across the main channel of the river. The foundations were formed by hollow blocks or wells, which sank by their own weight, while the sand was excavated from within. On these wells two solid walls were built, the upper or main wall to the height of 8 feet above the normal level of the river bed, the rear wall to the

height of 5½ feet. The space between was filled up with rubble, faced on a sloping surface with hewn stone. To provide for superfluous water in time of flood three sets of sluices have been inserted, one in the middle of the weir, and one at either side. The two latter are also intended, by their scouring action, to prevent the mouths of the canals from silting up. Each of these sets of sluices contains 22 vents of 20½ feet span, fitted with iron shutters, which open and shut by means of an ingenious system of self-acting machinery. The total cost of the anicut, which was finished in 1875, amounted to £153,668. The highest floods since recorded have risen 9½ feet above the crest of the work, but no damage has been done to the main structure.

The Western Main Canal branches off from the left bank of the river immediately above the anicut. It was intended to irrigate a total area of 1,200,000 acres. Its dimensions at starting are — width at base, 180 feet; depth of water in full supply, 9 feet; thus giving a maximum capacity of 4511 cubic feet of water per second. At present, this canal is chiefly used to supply the Arrah and the Baxár and Chausá Canals, which all branch off within the first 12 miles. The main canal is continued for a total distance of 22 miles, as far as the Grand Trunk Road, 2 miles beyond Sasseram. It commands, with its branches, 198,314 acres. Its prolongation for a farther distance of 50 miles to the frontier of the District, towards Mírzápur, was commenced as a relief work during the scarcity of 1874–75. The chief engineering work is the siphon-aqueduct of 25 arches, by which a formidable hill torrent called the Káo is carried under the canal.

The Arrah Canal branches off from the preceding at its 5th mile, and is estimated to carry 1616 cubic feet of water per second. It follows the course of the Son for 30 miles, and then strikes northwards, running on a natural ridge past the town of Arrah, and finally falls into a branch of the Ganges after a total course of 60 miles. It is designed for navigation as well as irrigation; but up to the present time no permanent communication has been opened with the main stream of the Ganges. To overcome the total fall of 180 feet, 13 locks have been constructed. This canal commands a total area of 441,500 acres, which is estimated to be equally divided between *kharíf* and *rabí* crops. Besides four principal distributaries, its main offshoots are the Bihiyá Canal, 30½ miles long; and the Dúmráon Canal, 40½ miles long.

The Baxár Canal leaves the Main Western Canal at its 12th mile, and is estimated to carry 1260 cubic feet of water per second. It communicates with the Ganges at Baxár, after a course of 55 miles, and is also intended for navigation. Its continuation, known as the Chausá Canal, has an additional length of 40 miles. The two together command an area of 348,500 acres. The total fall is 159 feet, which is overcome by 12 locks.

The Eastern Main Canal takes off from the right bank of the river, just opposite the mouth of the Western Canal. It was originally intended to run as far as Monghyr, but at present it stops short at the Púnpún river, a total length of only 8 miles.

The Patná Canal leaves the preceding at its 4th mile, and follows the course of the Son till it joins the Ganges near the jail at Digah, between Bankipur and Dinapur. Its total length is 79 miles, of which 43 miles lie within the District of Gayá, and 36 in Patná. It commands a total area of 307,610 acres. It was opened for navigation in October 1877.

Financial Aspects.—Up to the close of the year 1881–82, the total outlay for works, establishments, tools, and plant amounted to £2,355,777. This is the capital amount on which interest is charged; but the actual expenditure on all heads at the same date was £3,159,190. The total estimate sanctioned is £3,173,034. It is still premature to anticipate what the future income will be; but the experience of two recent years of scarcity—1873–74 and 1877–78—proves that the agriculture of this tract has now been saved from the former risk of uncertainty. In 1873–74, when even the main channels were unfinished, water was passed through them sufficient to irrigate nearly 160,000 acres, thus increasing the food supply by an amount estimated at 70,000 tons, and valued at £48,000. Again, in 1877–78, when the incomplete state of the distributaries on the Patná Canal prevented the enforcement of a water rate, the total area irrigated rose to nearly 300,000 acres, of which 64,000 acres were free.

The areas leased for irrigation from the Son canals, at the end of March 1884, amounted to 260,230 acres, including 102,220 acres under five years' leases for all crops. The water rates for irrigation at present in force are the following:—Annual leases—rice, 6s. an acre; autumn crops (*bhadoi*), except rice, 5s. an acre; winter crops, 5s. an acre; sugar-cane, 10s. an acre if watered by flow, a reduction of one-third being made if lifting power is required. Special rates for hot months—for all crops raised between 1st April and 25th June, 8s. an acre; five years' leases, 4s. an acre.

The total length of all the main canals open at the end of March 1884 was 219 miles, besides 148¾ miles of branch canals and 1082 miles of minor distributaries; total length of canals and irrigation distributaries, 1449 miles. The value of cargo carried by the canals has much increased of late years, having risen steadily from £127,926 in value in 1877–78 to £535,447 in 1883–84. The number of boats using the canal in the latter year was 8831, of a burthen of 95,476 tons, and paying a tollage of £4759. A steam transport service for passengers and goods has also been introduced, carrying in 1883–84, 52,185 passengers and 69,537 *maunds* of goods, paying a total sum for

passage and freight of £3687. In 1877–78, the financial results of the working of the Son canals showed a deficit of £15,112 of working expenses over the receipts. The balance-sheet for 1883–84 is as follows:—Water rates, £48,421; navigation receipts, £8519; miscellaneous, £3440: total income, £60,380. The working charges in 1883–84 amounted to £51,447, showing a surplus or net revenue of £8933. This, however, is exclusive of interest charges on capital expended.

Sonágáon.—Village in Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 38′ N., and long. 78° 45′ 30″ E., 13 miles west of Wardhá town. An ancient fair takes place every June and October, in honour of the god Murlídhar. The fort was built a century ago by an ancestor of the present *málguzárs*.

Sonah.—Town and sulphur springs in Gurgáon District, Punjab.—*See* SOHNA.

Sonái.—Town in Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 19° 23′ N., and long. 74° 54′ E., about 24 miles north by east of Ahmadnagar town. Population (1881) 5483, namely, Hindus, 4880; Muhammadans, 295; Jains, 164; Christians, 84; and 'others,' 60. Sonái is a large market town, surrounded by a rich plain, and divided by a watercourse into the Peth occupied by merchants, and the Kasbá or agricultural quarter. American Mission church built in 1861. Post-office.

Sonái.—Town in Mahában *tahsíl*, Muttra District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 34′ 18″ N., and long. 77° 55′ 47″ E., 12 miles north-east of Mahában town. Population (1881) 2393. Bi-weekly market held on Sundays and Thursdays. *Saráí* or native inn; police outpost station.

Sonái.—Important navigable channel in Nowgong District, Assam, which issues from the Brahmaputra, and, after a winding course in a south-westerly direction, finally falls into the Kalang, itself a similar offshoot from the Brahmaputra. It contains 6 feet of water all the year round, and the current is sluggish.

Sonái.—Hill stream in Cachar District, Assam, which rises in the Lushái Hills, and flows due north into the Bárak at Sonáimukh, where there is a toll station for forest produce. Some shops have been erected on the banks of the Sonái, within Lushái territory, for which the traders pay rent to the Lushái chiefs. The Sonái, Tipái, and Dhaleswarí are the three river trade routes from the Lushái country into Cachar. Total value of the Lushái trade in 1881–82, £10,900.

Sonair.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces.—*See* SAONER.

Sonákhán.—Estate in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; 60 miles south-east of Biláspur town; comprising two small fertile villages, surrounded by hills. Náráyan Singh, the chief, rebelled in 1857, and

was executed, and his estate confiscated. The tenantry withdrew in a body, and the tract was left a desert, until, some years ago, part was taken as a waste-land grant by a European gentleman. The village of Sonákhán lies in lat. 21° 31′ N., and long. 82° 37′ E.

Sonála.—Town in Akolá District, Berar. Population (1881) 5130, namely, Hindus, 4692; Muhammadans, 436; and Jains, 2.

Sonámganj.—Sub-division of Sylhet District, Assam. Population (1881) 382,560, residing in 2116 towns and villages, and occupying 65,025 houses. Muhammadans number 194,361; Hindus, 187,625, and 'others,' 574. The Sub-division comprises the four police circles (*thánás*) of Sonámganj, Derái, Chhatak, and Dharmpása. In 1884 it contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, with a police force of 88 men.

Sonámganj (or *Sunámganj*).—Village with river trade in Sylhet District, Assam, and head-quarters of Sonámganj Sub-division; situated on the left or south bank of the Surmá river. The exports are rice, limestone, dried fish, and *tezpát* or bay leaves, of which the value in 1881–82 was about £18,500. The imports are—cotton goods, salt, tobacco, sugar, spices, etc. Besides the usual Sub-divisional courts and offices, Sonámganj contains a police station, subordinate jail, dispensary, and post-office.

Sonámukhí.—Village in Bardwán District, Bengal; recently transferred from Bánkurá District. Lat. 23° 18′ 20″ N., long. 87° 27′ 15″ E. Formerly the site of a commercial residency and of an important factory of the East India Company, where weavers were employed in cotton-spinning and cloth-making. The introduction of English piece-goods led to the abandonment of these industries, the native fabrics not being able to compete with the imported European article; and from that time the prosperity of this place has declined. Police station. Population (1881) under 5000, and not shown separately in the Census Report.

Sonápur.—Market village in Kámrúp District, Assam. Lat. 26° 16′ 20″ N., long. 91° 40′ 10″ E. A considerable centre of local trade, conducted by Márwárí merchants. The village stands on the river Dikru, near the point where that stream falls into the Brahmaputra. A small iron suspension bridge spans the river, which it is proposed to replace by a substantial masonry bridge with iron girders. Police outpost station; tea-garden.

Sonápur.—Village in Berhampur *táluk*, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 19° 6′ 30″ N., long. 84° 50′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 1424, occupying 275 houses. Hindus number 1421, and Muhammadans 3. A decaying seaport, but formerly of importance. Its trade (with that of Mansurkota) has been absorbed by the rising port of Gopálpur. Considerable out-turn of salt at the Government factory at Surla, 3 miles distant.

Sonárgáon.—The ancient Muhammadan capital of Eastern Bengal, but now an insignificant village, called Painám, in Dacca District, Bengal; situated about 2 miles from the Brahmaputra, in lat. 23° 39′ 45″ N., and long. 90° 38′ 20″ E. The village is completely concealed in a grove of palms and other trees, and is surrounded by a deep muddy ditch, originally a moat. It was formerly famous for the manufacture of a fine description of muslin. In the vicinity of Sonárgáon are the ruins of several mosques, but the place does not appear to have ever had any pretensions to architectural grandeur. Being the residence of the Musalmán governors, who were generally sons of the reigning king, this village was frequently the centre of rebellion; and it was here that Azím Sháh, the son of Sikandar, proclaimed his independence, and invited the poet Háfiz to his court. The town gave its name to one of the three great *sarkárs*, or Provinces into which Muhammad Tughlak divided Eastern Bengal in 1330. So long as Sonárgáon remained the capital, it was a place of considerable trading importance, and formed the terminus of the Grand Trunk Road made by Sher Sháh.

Sonbarsá.—Village in Ballia *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 44′ 04″ N., and long. 84° 32′ 46″ E., 22 miles from Ballia town. Population (1881) 8714. Sonbarsá is not a town, but an aggregate of 23 separate villages and hamlets forming part of the Damodarpur *táluk* or estate, the property of the Mahárájá of Dumráon. The inhabitants are principally Lohtámia Rájputs, noted in former times for their determined resistance to the authority of the revenue officers appointed by the Mahárájá. The principal hamlet is Lálganj, in which a large bi-weekly market is held.

Sonbarsá.—Town or collection of villages in Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Population (1881) 5237.

Sonda.—Town in North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency; situated 10 miles north of Sirsi. Population (1881) 5017. Sonda, now a small town, was, between 1590 and 1762, the capital of a family of Hindu chiefs. The only objects of interest are its old fort, and a Vaishnav and a Jain monastery. The fort is ruined and deserted, and its high walls are hidden by trees and brushwood. The masonry shows traces of considerable architectural skill. The posts of the gateway are single blocks 14 to 16 feet long, and in the quadrangle are several ponds lined with large masses of finely dressed stone. Perhaps the most remarkable of the fragments is a trap slab, 12 feet square and 6 inches thick, perfectly levelled and dressed, which rests on five richly carved pillars about 3 feet high. Except this slab, which is locally believed to be the throne, not a vestige is left of the palace of the Sonda chiefs. The town is said to have had three lines of fortifications, the innermost wall being at least 6 miles from the modern Sonda.

The space within the innermost wall is said to have been full of houses. In the two spaces surrounded by the outer lines of wall the houses were scattered in clumps with gardens between. A religious festival called the car-procession takes place in April–May, attended by from 2000 to 3000 people, and cloth and copper and brass vessels are sold worth about £800. The Sonda chiefs were a branch of the Vijayanagar kings who settled at Sonda (1570–80). In 1682, Sambhájí led a detachment against Sonda, but apparently without effect. During 1745–1762 the town suffered much from Maráthá attacks. In 1764, Haidar Alí took and destroyed Sonda, and compelled the chief to take shelter in Goa with his family and treasure. The representative of the Sonda family still holds a position of honour in Goa.

Sonepat (*Sunípat*).—*Tahsíl* and town in Delhi District, Punjab.—*See* SONPAT.

Songarh.—Village and fort in Baroda State, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Now a small village with a population (1881) of 2355; but once a flourishing town. Its huge buildings stood enclosed by a large brick wall, which is now nearly demolished. The buildings were destroyed by fire about eight or nine years ago. Post-office and dispensary. The fort of Songarh is situated to the west of the town on a small hill. It was originally seized from the Bhíls, some families of whom still hold *jágírs* in connection with it. In the lower part of the enclosed space are the ruins of what must once have been a handsome palace with several storeys.

Songarh (originally named *Sonpuri*).—Petty State in the Gohelwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Area, 1 square mile. Population (1881) 1181. Estimated revenue, £200; of which £50, 6s. is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £6, 18s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. The village of Songarh is situated 19 miles west-south-west of Bhaunagar, and 15 miles north-north-east of Pálitána. Close to the village is the British civil station, covering an area of 300 acres, for which an annual rent of £30 is paid to the Girasiás by the British Government. The entire station is planted with trees. Within the limits of the station are the Assistant Political Agent's and the Deputy Assistant's dwellings, the *tháná* (police) buildings, hospital, dispensary, court-houses, library, and an excellent garden. In the village are the school, post-office, and *dharmsála*. Songarh is a station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway.

Songír.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 21° 8′ N., and long. 75° 4′ E., 14 miles north of Dhulia. Population (1881) 4275. Songír, like Dhulia, has passed through the hands of the Arab kings, the Mughals, and the Nizám. From the Nizám it came to the Peshwá, who granted it to the Vinchurkar, from whom it fell into

the hands of the British Government in 1818. Not long after the occupation of Songír by the British, the Arab soldiers, of whom there were many at that time in Khándesh, made an attempt to recover the town; and did actually take possession of a portion of it, but were eventually repulsed and completely defeated. Songír has a local reputation for its brass and copper ware. Coarse woollen blankets and cotton cloths are also woven. The fort is partly commanded by a hill about 400 yards to the south. The north and south ends are of solid masonry, and the walls, of uncut stone, are in a few places in good order. Of the inner buildings hardly a trace remains. Handsome old reservoir, fine old well, post-office, and travellers' bungalow.

Sonkh.—Town in Muttra *tahsíl*, Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 29′ 12″ N., and long. 77° 52′ 40″ E., 16 miles from Muttra town on the road to Kumbhír. Population (1881) 4126. A thriving and well-to-do little town, with a large number of substantial brick-built shops and houses, many of them with carved stone fronts. Markets on Mondays and Thursdays. Police station; post-office.

Sonmiáni.—Town and harbour in Balúchistán; situated in lat. 24° 27′ N., and long. 66° 39′ E., 70 miles south of Belá, and 52 north-west of Karáchí (Kurrachee) in Sind. Mr. Hughes, in his *Balúchistán*, gives the following account of the place, which he describes as 'small and insignificant':—

'It is seated at the northern extremity of a kind of bay, or large inlet of the sea. The harbour, situated also at the northern head of the bay, which, says Carless (who wrote upon this place many years ago), has been formed by the Puráli river, is a large, irregular inlet, spreading out, like that at Karáchí, in extensive swamps, and choked with shoals. It is at the southern portion of the Bay of Sonmiáni, Pottinger believes, that the port of Alexander, so named by Nearchus, was situated, and that here his fleet, according to Arrian, remained for a considerable period. The channel leading into the harbour is extremely narrow, and has a depth of 16 or 17 feet at high water in the shallowest part; but it shifts its position every year, and vessels of any size could not navigate it without great difficulty until it had been buoyed off. Inside there are 6, 7, and even 10 fathoms in some places; but towards the town the channels become shallow, and the trading boats cannot approach nearer than a mile.'

The water-supply is very bad. Trade now unimportant, though once considerable. Oil is manufactured from the *shira* or *shangruf* plant. During the military operations in Southern Afghánistán (1879–81), Sonmiáni was used as a port of debarkation for stores and munitions of war, especially for mules from Persia.

Sonpat.—Northern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Delhi District, Punjab.

It consists partly of riverain land on the right bank of the Jumna, and partly of a high plateau, watered by the Delhi branch of the Western Jumna Canal, which is the southern continuation of the alluvial plain known as the cis-Sutlej tract. The watershed between the Gangetic and Indus river systems extends across the *tahsíl*. Area, 454 square miles, with 223 towns and villages, 26,431 houses, and 42,024 families. Total population (1881) 186,835, namely, males 99,662, and females 87,173; average density of population, 411 persons per square mile. Hindus number 154,689; Muhammadans, 28,548; Jains, 3546; Sikhs, 47; and Christians, 5. Of the 223 towns and villages, 102 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 65 between five hundred and a thousand; 35 between one and two thousand; 17 between two and three thousand; 3 between three and five thousand; and 1 between ten and fifteen thousand. Average area under cultivation for the two years 1880–81 and 1881–82, 197,178 acres, the principal crops being — wheat, 67,019 acres; *bájra*, 33,212 acres; gram, 16,116 acres; rice, 11,487 acres; Indian corn, 7486 acres; *joár*, 6610 acres; moth, 4146 acres; barley, 3886 acres; sugar-cane, 12,558 acres; cotton, 12,151 acres; tobacco, 624 acres; and vegetables, 596 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £33,029. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, *munsif*, and an honorary magistrate, presiding over 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 93 men; rural police (*chaukidárs*), 336.

Sonpat.—Town and municipality in Delhi District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Sonpat *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 28° 59′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 3′ 30″ E., 28 miles north-west of Delhi city. Population (1881) 13,077, namely, males 6449, and females 6628. Muhammadans number 6764; Hindus, 5297; Jains, 1011; and Sikhs, 5. Number of houses, 2097. Municipal income (1883–84), £984, or an average of 1s. 6d. per head. Sonpat is a town of great antiquity, founded by the earliest Aryan settlers. Popular tradition, accepted by General Cunningham, identifies it with one of the '*pats*' demanded by Yudishthira, in the *Mahábhárata*, from Duryodhána as the price of peace. Picturesquely placed on the side of a small hill, evidently formed from the debris of buildings. This point is, however, doubtful, and other authorities assign its foundation to Rájá Soní, 13th in descent from Arjuna, the brother of Yudishthira. A terra-cotta figure of the sun, dug up in 1866, is pronounced by General Cunningham to be at least twelve centuries old. In 1871, a hoard of some 1200 Greco-Bactrian hemidrachms was also unearthed at Sonpat. The present town occupies an area of about a square mile in extent. It is picturesquely situated, surrounded by trees, and approached from the Grand Trunk Road by two metalled roads from the north-west and south-east, each about 5 miles long. There is also a direct road

from Delhi, the old Imperial road, but not now much used. The *tahsíli* courts and offices, *munsifi*, and police station are situated on an eminence in the centre of the town. Other prominent buildings are a dispensary, school, and two Jain temples. Sonpat forms a market for a circuit of 7 or 8 miles; and the *baniyá* or trading quarter contains a flourishing *bázár* and several handsome houses. In the neighbourhood of the town are some ancient Pathán tombs, one of which has been converted into a rest-house.

Sonpur.—Village in Sáran District, Bengal; perhaps the most widely known place in the District; situated in lat. 25° 41′ 35″ N., and long. 85° 12′ 50″ E., at the confluence of the Gandak and the Ganges. The village has a resident population (1881) of only 295 souls, but is famous for its great fair, held for ten days during the full-moon of Kártik. This is probably one of the oldest *mielás* in India, its origin being said to be contemporaneous with Ráma and Sítá. It was at Sonpur that Vishnu rescued an elephant, who had gone to drink, from the clutches of a crocodile. A temple was subsequently erected here by Ráma, when on his way to Janakpur to fight for Sítá. Sonpur is considered to be a spot of exceptional holiness. The fair, attended by great numbers of persons, lasts a fortnight; but it is at its height two days before, and two days after, the bathing in the Ganges. The chief articles of trade are elephants and horses and piece-goods. But the great attraction of Sonpur is the annual race meeting, the occasion of one of the most agreeable social gatherings for Europeans held in Northern India. A large camp is pitched in a magnificent grove. There are also an excellent racecourse and stand. The races last for a week.

Sonpur.—Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 40′ and 21° 10′ N. lat., and between 83° 20′ and 84° 18′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Sambalpur District, on the east by Rairákhol, on the south by Bod, and on the west by Patná States. Population (1881) 178,701, residing in 869 villages or towns, and 25,521 houses, on an area of 906 square miles, of which 556 were cultivated in 1877, while of the portion lying waste 90 square miles were returned as cultivable. Density of population, 197 persons per square mile. The country generally is flat, with isolated hills rising abruptly here and there. The Mahánadi flows through the centre of the State, receiving the waters of the Tel and Suktel; to the north, the Jira river divides Sonpur from Sambalpur. The State contains no large forests, and such as exist do not yield any valuable timber. The soil is poor and sandy, but, owing to the numerous population, well cultivated. Rice forms the staple crop; but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton are also grown. Coarse country cloths constitute the only manufacture; and though iron-ore is found in many parts, no

mines are regularly worked. The State contains no made roads, except the line which branches off from the Ráipur and Sambalpur road at Sohelá, southward to Cuttack, and is continued through Sonpur, along the right bank of the Mahánadi; and from Bod, 30 miles below Sonpur, there are bungalows every 10 miles. In the Mahánadi, just opposite Sonpur, a dangerous rapid impedes navigation; nevertheless, by this river and the Tel, timber is floated down, and in good years rice and oil-seeds are also exported.

Sonpur was originally a chiefship subordinate to Patná; but was constituted a separate State by Madhukar Sá, about 1560, and from that time formed one of the cluster known as the 'Athára Garhját,' or Eighteen Strongholds. The succession has continued regularly from Madan Gopál, the first Rájá, down to Níládri Singh Deo Bahádur, Rájá in 1877, who obtained the title of 'Bahádur' for his services to the British Government in the field. The family is Chauhán Rájput. Estimated gross revenue, £2800; tribute, £500. The climate of Sonpur resembles that of Sambalpur, and is considered unhealthy.

Sonpur. — *Zamíndárí* estate in Chhindwárá *tahsíl*, Chhindwárá District, Central Provinces; south-west of Haraí. Area, 110 square miles, with 61 villages and 2011 houses. Population (1881) 10,849, namely, males 5497, and females 5352. The chief is a Gond, and pays to Government an annual quit-rent of £1, 10s. Sonpur village lies in lat. 22° 21′ N., and long. 79° 3′ E.

Sonpur Binká. — Town in Sonpur Native State, Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 4680, namely, Hindus, 4555; Muhammadans, 109; Christians, 3; and non-Hindu aborigines, 13.

Sonpur Mandá. — Village in Sonpur Native State, Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2158, namely, Hindus 2136, and non-Hindu aborigines 22.

Sonsarí. — *Zamíndárí* estate in Brahmapurí *tahsíl*, Chánda District, Central Provinces; 14 miles north-north-east of Wairágarh. Area, 56 square miles, with 20 villages, 679 houses, and a total population (1881) of 3558 souls. The chief is a Halbá. Sonsarí village lies in lat. 20° 31′ N., and long. 80° 15′ E.

Sonwáni.—Village in Ballia *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 46′ 26″ N., and long. 84° 20′ 46″ E., 11 miles distant from Ballia town. Population (1881) 2274. It forms the principal village of the Sonwáni *jágír*, which was granted by Warren Hastings in 1782 to his head *munshí*. Manufacture of *sindúr* (red lead). Bi-weekly market; village school.

Sooree.—Sub-division and town in Bírbhúm District, Bengal.—*See* Suri.

Sopára.—Ancient town in Bassein *táluk*, Thána District, Bombay Presidency; said to have been the capital of the Konkan from 1500 B.C. to 1300 A.D. Situated about 3½ miles north-west of the Bassein Road station, and about the same distance south-west of Vírár station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. Sopára is still a rich country town, with a crowded weekly market. Under the name of Shurpáraka, Sopára appears in the *Mahábhárata* as a very holy place, where the five Pandava brothers rested on their way to Prabhás. According to Buddhist writers, Gautama Buddha, in one of his former births, was *Bodhisat Suppárak*, that is Bodhisattwa of Sopára. This old Hindu fame gives support to Benfey's, Reland's, and Renaud's suggestion that Sopára is Solomon's Ophir. Jain writers make frequent mention of Sopára. Under the names Sopáraka, Sopáraya, and Shorpáraga, it is mentioned in old Devanágiri inscriptions, about the first or second centuries after Christ. The author of the *Periplus* in the 3rd century A.D. mentions Ouppara between Broach and Kalyán as a local mart on the coast.

Sorab.—*Táluk* in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Area, 438·5 square miles, of which, including *inám* lands, 167 are cultivated. Population (1881) 66,514, namely, males 34,934, and females 31,580. Hindus number 63,770; Muhammadans, 2703; and Christians, 41. Land revenue (1883), £23,987. The woodland scenery is marked by peculiar patches of forest called *káns*, on which grow groves of magnificent timber-trees, demarcated by sharp lines from the surrounding country. These *káns* are caused by corresponding depressions in the substratum of laterite, which permit a surface-soil of great depth to gather; whereas, over the rest of the country, the mould is only about 4 inches deep. Among the forest trees, the valuable wild pepper-vine grows in large quantities. The hollow valleys supply rich rice lands, and the inhabitants are generally prosperous. Wild animals are numerous, especially leopards. Iron-ore is largely smelted in certain localities. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 56 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 271.

Sorab (*Surabhi*, '*The Cow of Plenty*'). — Municipal village in Shimoga District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 14° 22′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 7′ 55″ E., on the right bank of the Dandavati river, 46 miles north-west of Shimoga town. Head-quarters of Sorab *táluk*. Population (1881) 1544. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £53; rate of taxation, 8¼d. per head. The principal centre of the industry of sandal-wood carving, for which the country round is celebrated. The *gúdigars* or carvers chiefly manufacture boxes, caskets, and cabinets, which they cover with minute and complicated reliefs. The native designs consist of vegetation and scroll-work, interspersed with figures from the Hindu pantheon; but any European pattern can be copied to order. The

workmanship is considered finer than that of Bombay or Canton, and commands a high price.

Soráon.—The westernmost of the three trans-Gangetic *tahsils* of Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, comprising the *parganás* of Nawábganj, Soráon, and Mírzápur Chauhári. The small island-like group of villages entirely surrounded by Oudh territory, containing nearly the whole of *parganá* Mírzápur Chauhári, forms the chief peculiarity in the configuration of the *tahsíl*. Mírzápur Chauhári is the most densely populated *parganá* in the whole of the North-Western Provinces, the reason being that its position rendered it the most accessible home for refugees from Oudh, when the latter was under native rule. Area of Soráon *tahsíl*, according to the latest official statement, 245 square miles, namely, cultivated, 149 square miles; cultivable but not under tillage, 35 square miles; revenue-free, 2 square miles; and uncultivable waste, 59 square miles. Total population (1881) 184,894, namely, males 90,867, and females 94,027. Average density, 758 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 157,768; Muhammadans, 27,111; and Christians, 15. Of 432 inhabited villages, 309 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 88 between five hundred and a thousand; 34 between one thousand and three thousand; and there is only 1 town with upwards of three thousand, namely, Mau-Aima (8423). The principal land-holding castes are Bráhmans, who own 244 out of 587 estates within the *tahsíl*. The cultivating castes occur in the following order:—Kúrmís, Bráhmans, Ahírs, Rájputs, Káchhís, Shaikhs, etc. As regards their material condition, the peasantry of Soráon, owing to the predominance of old resident proprietors, and the lightness of the assessment, are better off than those in the adjacent *tahsíl* of Phúlpur. Government land revenue, £29,886, or including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £35,005. Total rental, including rates and cesses, paid by the cultivators, £47,786. In 1885 the *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 48 men; village police (*chaukídárs*), 533.

Soráon.—Village in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Soráon *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 25° 36′ 17″ N., and long. 81° 53′ 33″ E., on the Faizábád road, 13 miles north of Allahábád city. The village contained in 1881 a population of only 1665 souls, and apart from being the *tahsíl* head-quarters, possesses no importance whatever. Besides the usual Sub-divisional courts and offices, Soráon contains a post-office, police station, and *tahsíli* school.

Sorashtra (*Sorath*).—Old name of KATHIAWAR, Bombay Presidency.

Sorath.—*Prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated in the south-east corner of the peninsula of Káthiáwár, and

including among others, the chiefships of JUNAGARH, PORBANDAR, and JETPUR. Area, 5385 square miles. Population (1881) 639,780, namely, males 332,945, and females 306,835; occupying 135,877 houses in 12 towns and 1205 villages. Hindus number 520,270; Muhammadans, 109,248; and 'others,' 10,262.

Soron.—Town and municipality in Kásganj *tahsíl*, Etah District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Burhgangá, or ancient bed of the river Ganges, in lat. 27° 53′ 40″ N., and long. 78° 47′ 35″ E., on the Bareilly and Háthras road; distant from Etah town 27 miles north-east. Population (1881) 12,745, namely, males 6554, and females 6191. Hindus, 10,209; Muhammadans, 2519; Christians, 15; and Jains, 2. Municipal income (1883–84), £939, of which £823 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3⅝d. per head.

Soron has some pretensions as a trading mart; but it is chiefly important for its religious associations, and as the scene of frequent pilgrim fairs. Devout Hindus, after visiting MUTTRA (Mathurá), come on to Soron to bathe in the Burhgangá, which here forms a considerable pool, lined with handsome temples and *ghâts*. Half the Hindu population consists of Bráhmans, distinguished by wearing a scarlet *pagri* (head-dress). They derive a large income from donations sent from remote parts of India, and also from annual tours among their pilgrim clients, as well as from the numerous festivals. A fine masonry bridge connects Soron with the opposite village of Badariya, and was supplemented in 1873 by a screw-pile bridge. The pool of the Burhgangá consists of stagnant dirty water, except during the rains, when it becomes a running stream. *Pípal* trees surround the temples, which number 60 in all. Several handsome *dharmsálas* or rest-houses for pilgrims, exquisitely carved in Agra stone, attest the wealth and piety of pilgrims from Gwalior and Bhartpur. Considerable trade in grain. Police station, post-office, Government charitable dispensary, and school.

Soron is a place of great antiquity, originally known as Ukala-kshetra; but after the destruction of the demon Hiranyakasyapa by Vishnu in his boar *avatár*, the name was changed to Sukara-kshetra. A mound, bearing the title of *kilá* or fort, marks the site of the ancient town. The temple of Sítá Rámjí and the tomb of Shaikh Jamál form the only buildings now standing upon this mound; but large antique bricks strew the ground on all sides, and the foundations of walls may be traced throughout. The temple was destroyed during the fanatical reign of Aurangzeb, but restored a few years since by a wealthy Baniyá, who built up the vacant interstices of the pillars with plain white-washed walls. The architectural features of the pillars resemble those of the Kutab at Delhi. Numerous inscriptions in the temple bear date from 1169 A.D. downward.

Sounth.—State and town in Rewa Kántha, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SUNTH.

South Kánara.—District in Madras Presidency.—*See* KANARA, SOUTH.

South Maráthá Jágírs, The.—A group of Native States in Bombay Presidency, under the political superintendence of the Kolhápur Agency, comprising the following States:—SANGLI, JAMKHANDI, MIRAJ (Senior and Junior Branch), KURANDWAR (Senior and Junior Branch), MUDHOL, and RAMDURG. The *jágírs* of Sángli, Jámkhandi, Miraj (2), and Kurandwár (2) belong to Bráhman chiefs of the Patwardhan family; their territories are divided into a large number of isolated patches—one portion of the Sángli State being close to the southern frontier of the Bombay Presidency, whilst another is on the river Bhíma, near Pandharpur. Total area, 2734 square miles. Population (1881) 523,753, namely, males 260,136, and females 263,617; occupying 90,799 houses in 13 towns and 589 villages. Hindus number 458,078; Muhammadans, 41,420; Jains, 23,943; Christians, 304; and Pársis, 8. The *jágírs* lie partly in the old Hindu Province of Mahárashtra, partly in that of the Karnátik; and the division of language on which these old Divisions were founded is still maintained, for of the population 279,294 speak Kanarese and 195,528 speak Maráthí. Prior to 1812, the power of the Patwardhan family had for some years excited the jealousy of the Peshwá, who had attempted to strip them of their rights; in that year, however, they were taken under the protection of the British Government.

South-Western Frontier Agency.—The name formerly given to the CHUTIA NAGPUR TRIBUTARY STATES, Bengal.

Spiti.—An extensive Sub-division of Kángra District, Punjab, consisting of an outlying Tibetan valley among the external ranges of the Himálayan system, lying between 31° 42′ and 32° 58′ N. lat., and between 77° 21′ and 78° 32′ E. long. It has the form of a rough triangle, its apex lying at the convergence of the Kanzam ridge and the Outer Himálayas, while the transverse ridge of Mánirang in the South Himálayas, dividing Kángra District from Bashahr State, forms the base. The triangular tract thus enclosed has an estimated area of 2155 square miles, the base measuring about 58 miles, and a line from base to apex about 60 miles. The whole valley is drained by the Li or river of Spiti, which for the most part of its course flows in a broad shingly bed, and from whose banks the spurs of the surrounding mountain ranges rise almost immediately with a steep but smooth ascent. The Li or Spiti river rises in the angle between the Kanzam and Outer Himálayan ranges, at the base of a peak 20,073 feet in height, and after a south-easterly course of 10 miles, is joined by another stream from the south-west, the Lichu, which drains the

mountains on either side of the Kanzam pass. Thence it flows eastwards for 13 miles, washing the base of the Outer Himálayas, when it turns to the south-east till it reaches Máni at the base of the southern hills. Here it sweeps eastwards, and ultimately leaves Spiti at its north-east corner by a narrow gorge hemmed in on either side by lofty mountains. In Bashahr (Bassahir) State it turns southwards, and ultimately joins the Sutlej after a course of 120 miles, its fall averaging about 60 feet per mile.

The principal tributaries of the Spiti in its course through the valley are—on its left bank, the Kibjuna, Tánmu, Lágudársi, Párang, Shilla, and Língti; and on its right bank, the Giundi, Rátang, and Pín. The latter is the most important tributary. It rises in the angle of the mid-Himálayan and Mánirang ranges, and joins the Spiti after a course of 45 miles, a short distance above Dankar, the principal village of the valley. The greater part of its course is through an uninhabited country; but near the mouth of its valley the country opens and affords space for cultivation by eleven villages. On the Spiti river the first inhabited spot is Losar, 12 miles from the Kanzam pass. From this point downwards villages are frequent, occupying every available corner in the valleys, both of the main stream and of its tributaries from the north. The southern tributaries flow through an utterly barren and uninhabited country.

The mountains of Spiti are more lofty than in the neighbouring country of Láhul. In the Outer Himálayas is one peak of 23,064 feet, and many along the whole line are considerably over 20,000 feet. Of the mid-Himálayas, two peaks exceed 21,000 feet, and in the southern range the Mánirang is 21,646 feet in height. From the main ranges transverse lines of mountains project far into the valley on either side, leaving in many cases only a narrow interval through which flows the Spiti river. Even these minor ranges contain peaks the height of which in many instances exceeds 17,000 feet. The mean elevation of the Spiti valley is 12,981 feet above sea-level. Several villages are situated at an elevation of upwards of 13,000 feet, and one or two as high as 14,000 feet. Scarcely any vegetation clothes the bare and rocky mountain slopes; yet the scenery is not devoid of a rugged grandeur, while the deep and peculiar colour of the crags often gives most picturesque effects to the otherwise desolate landscape. Red and yellow predominate in the rocks, contrasting finely with the white snowy peaks in the background and the deep blue sky overhead. The villages stand for the most part on little flat plateaux, above the cliffs of the Spiti river; and their white houses, dotted about among the green cultivated plots, afford rare oases in the desert of stony debris which covers the mountain-sides.

History.—The history of Spiti commences with the first formation of

the kingdom of Ladákh, after which event the valley seems for awhile to have been separated from that government, and attached to some other short-lived Tibetan principality. About 1630 A.D., it fell into the hands of Sinagi Námgyál, King of Ladákh, who allotted it to his third son, Tenchbog. Soon afterwards, it became a part of the Guge principality, which lay to the east, in what is now Chinese Tibet; and it did not again come under the dominion of Ladákh till about 1720. In that year the King of Ladákh, at the conclusion of a war with Guge and Lhásá, married the daughter of the Lhásan commander, and received Spiti as her dower. Thenceforward the valley remained a province of Ladákh; but, from its remote and inaccessible position, it was practically left for the most part to govern itself, the official sent from Leh usually disappearing as soon as the harvest had been gathered in and the scanty revenue collected. Spiti was always liable to be harried by forays; but the people, being an unwarlike race, preferred the payment of black-mail to the armed defence of their barren valley.

After the Sikhs annexed the neighbouring principality of KULU in 1841, they despatched a force to plunder Spiti. The inhabitants, in accordance with their usual tactics, retreated into the mountains, and left their houses and monasteries to be plundered and burnt. The Sikhs retired as soon as they had taken everything upon which they could lay hands, and did not attempt to annex the valley to Kúlu nor to separate it from Ladákh. In 1846, however, on the cession of the trans-Sutlej States to the British after the first Sikh war, the Government, with the object of securing a road to the wool districts of Cháng Tháng, added Spiti to Kúlu, giving other territory in exchange to the Maháráját of Kashmír. In the same year, General (then Captain) Cunningham and Mr. Vans Agnew demarcated the boundary between Spiti, Ladákh, and Chinese Tibet. Since that date, the valley has been peacefully governed by British officials, with the assistance of the native hereditary rulers, who still practically manage all internal affairs after their own fashion.

Population.—The population of Spiti, in 1881, amounted to only 2862 persons, almost exclusively of Tibetan origin. The religion is Buddhism, and extensive monasteries often crown the lower ridges overhanging the villages. The five principal monasteries are at Dankar, Tabo, Ki, Tangiut, and Pín, and contain about 300 monks. These monasteries, which are endowed by tithes of grain (*pun*) levied from every field, are extensive buildings, standing on high ground, and apart from the villages. In the centre of the pile are the public rooms, consisting of chapels, refectories, and store-rooms; round them are clustered the separate cells in which the monks live. Each landholder's family has its particular *tásha* or cell in the monastery to which it is hereditarily attached, and in this all the monks of the family, uncles,

nephews, and brothers, may be found living together. The monks ordinarily mess in these separate quarters, and keep their books, clothes, cooking utensils, and other private property in them. Some mess singly, others two or three together. A boy monk, if he has no uncle to look after him, is made a pupil to some old monk, and lives in his cell; there are generally two or three chapels, one for winter, another for summer, and a third perhaps the private chapel of the abbot or head *lámá*.

The monks meet in the chapel to perform the services, which ordinarily consist of readings from the sacred books; a sentence is read out and then repeated by the whole congregation. Narrow carpets are laid lengthways on the floor of the chapel, one for each monk; each has his allotted place, and a special position is assigned to the reader: the abbot sits on a special seat of honour, raised a little above the common level of the floor; the chapels are fine large rooms open down the centre, which is separated from the sides by rows of wooden pillars. At the far end is the altar, consisting of a row of large coloured figures, the images of the *avatár* or incarnation of Buddha of the present age, of the coming *avatár* of the next age, and of Gúrús Rimbochi, Atishá, and other saints. In some chapels a number of small brass images from China are ranged on shelves on one side of the altar, and on the other stands a bookcase full of the sacred books, which are bundles of loose sheets printed from engraved slabs in the fashion which has been in use in Tibet for many centuries. The walls all round the chapel are painted with figures of male or female divinities, saints, and demons, or hung with pictures on cloth with silk borders; similar pictures on cloth are also suspended across the chapel on ropes. The best pictures are brought from Great Tibet as presents to the monastery by monks who return from taking the degree of Gelang at Lhásá, or who have been living for some years in one of the monasteries of that country. They are painted in a very quaint and conventional style, but with considerable power of drawing and colouring. Huge cylindrical prayer-wheels, which spin round at a slight touch of the finger, stand round the room, or on each side of the altar. In the store-rooms among the public property are kept the dresses, weapons, and fantastic masks used in the *chám* or religious plays (these masks much resemble the monstrous faces to be seen in the carving outside Gothic cathedrals); also the drums and cymbals, and the robes and quaint head-dresses worn by the superior monks at high ceremonies.

The refectory or public kitchen is only used on the occasion of certain festivals, which sometimes last several days, during which special services are performed in the chapels; while these festivals last, the monks mess together, eating and drinking their full of meat, barley,

butter, and tea. The main source from which the expense of these feasts is met is the *pun*, which is not divided among the monks for every-day consumption in the separate cells. To supply his private larder, each monk has, in the first place, all he gets from his family in the shape of the produce of the '*lámá's* field' or otherwise; secondly, he has his share, according to his rank in the monastery, of the *bula* or funeral offerings and of the harvest alms; thirdly, anything he can acquire in the way of fees for attendance at marriages or other ceremonies or in the way of wages for work done in the summer. The funeral offerings made to the monasteries on the death of any member of a household consist of money, clothes, pots and pans, grain, butter, etc.; the harvest alms consist of grain collected by parties of five or six monks sent out on begging expeditions all over Spiti by each monastery just after the harvest. They go round from house to house in full dress, and standing in a row, chant certain verses, the burden of which is—'We are men who have given up the world, give us, in charity, the means of life; by so doing you will please God, whose servants we are.' The receipts are considerable, as each house gives something to every party. On the death of a monk, his private property, whether kept in his cell or deposited in the house of the head of the family, goes not to the monastery, but to his family, first to the monks of it, if any, and in their default, to the head or *káng chimpa*. When a monk starts for Lhásá, to take his degree, his *káng chimpa* is bound to give him what he can towards the expenses of the journey, but only the better-to-do men can afford it. Many who go to Lhásá get high employment under the Lhásá Government, being sent to govern monasteries, etc., and remain there for years; they return in old age to their native monastery in Spiti bringing a good deal of wealth, of which they always give some at once to their families.

The monks of Pín are of the Dukhpa, and not of the Gelukpa or celibate class, to which those of the other four monasteries belong; they marry in imitation of their patron saint Gúrú Rimbochi, though in their books marriage is not approved. This saint founded several orders, of which that to which the monks of Pín belong is the most ancient, and is called Ngyángma. The wives and families of the monks live not in the monasteries, but in small houses in the villages. Every son of a monk becomes a *bozan*, which is the name given to a low order of strolling monks or friars. The endowments consist of tithes of grain.

In appearance, the population belong to the Mongolian stock, and their dress is characterized by the love of colour conspicuous among that division of mankind. The figures both of men and women are short and stout; their complexions are a ruddy brown instead of a black brown or dusky yellow; their faces are broad and flat, with high

cheek-bones and oblique eyes; broad mouths and flat noses, with wide nostrils. Except in extreme youth, the skin of the face is always marked with lines and wrinkles. In fact, none can be said to be good-looking, and the old women are hideous; the one redeeming point is the look of honesty and smiling good humour exhibited in almost every countenance. Polyandry does not now exist, as in the adjacent region of Láhul; the same object being attained by the peculiar practice of primogeniture, by which only the eldest son marries, while the younger sons become monks. Crime is rare; but both chastity and sobriety are almost unknown. The language in use is pure Tibetan. The chief village and immemorial seat of government is DANKAR.

Agriculture and Commerce.—The principal crop is barley. The hereditary native head-man of Spiti bears the title of Nono. The exports include cereals, manufactured cloth, *yáks*, and *yák's* tails. The imports comprise salt, tobacco, madder, and tea from Lhásá; wool, turquoises, amber, and wooden vessels from Kunáwár; coarse cloth, dyes, and soda from Ladákh; and iron from Mandi and Kunáwár. A handsome breed of ponies is imported from Chamarti.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, Spiti forms part of the Kúlu *tahsíl* of Kángra District, under the Assistant Commissioner at Nagar on the Beas (Biás). The Nono ranks as an honorary magistrate with limited powers. The Government revenue amounts to only £75. There is no school in the valley; but two boys from each local sub-division (of which there are 5) attend the Government school at Kyelang in Láhul. The climate is warm in summer, but intensely cold during the winter, when its natural severity is aggravated by piercing winds from the snowy ranges. Snow begins to fall in December, and lies on the ground till April, to a depth of about 2½ feet. Slight showers of rain occur in July and August, though the valley lies beyond the regular influence of the monsoon. The health of the people is excellent; goitre and cretinism are unknown. Messrs. Schlagintweit give the mean temperature of the Upper Spiti valley at 17° F. in January, 38° F. in April, 60° F. in July, and 39° F. in October.

Spiti.—River in Kángra District and Bashahr State, Punjab, draining the whole Sub-division of SPITI. Rises at the converging angle of the Kanzam and Outer Himálayan ranges, at the base of a peak 20,073 feet above the sea, and after a south-easterly course of 10 miles, receives the Lichu, a stream of equal volume, carrying off the surface waters of the mountains on either side of the Kanzam pass; flows eastward for 13 miles, washing the foot of the Outer Himálayas; then turns south-eastward till it reaches Máni, at the foot of the southern hills; thence sweeps eastward and leaves Spiti by a narrow gorge at its north-east corner; in Bashahr it pursues a southerly direction, and finally joins

the Sutlej (lat. 31° 42′ N., long. 78° 39′ E.) after a total course of 120 miles, with an average fall of 60 feet per mile. The greater part of the valley drained by the Spiti and its tributaries consists of barren rocks, through which the various torrents have cut themselves deep channels. The chief affluent of the Spiti is the PIN.

Srávan Belgola.—Temples in Hassan District, Mysore State.—*See* SHRAVAN BELGOLA.

Sravasti.—Ruins in Gonda District, Oudh.—*See* SAHET MAHET.

Srígonda.—Sub-division in the south of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 625 square miles. Population (1881) 51,291, namely, males 26,020, and females 25,271; occupying 7078 houses, in 1 town and 83 villages. Hindus number 48,080; Muhammadans, 2086; and 'others,' 1125. The greater part of the Sub-division lies in the valley of the Bhíma, and has a gentle slope from the north-east towards that river on the south, and its tributary the Ghod on the south-west. For the most part it is a level plain, with an average elevation of 1900 feet above sea-level, skirted on the north-east by a chain of low hills with flat summits, or *pathárs*, which have a uniform elevation of about 2500 feet. Towards the hills the soil is generally of a very poor description. That of the centre of the Sub-division is tolerably fertile; but in the neighbourhood of the Bhíma deep clayey soils prevail which require much labour in their cultivation, and only yield good crops in years of plentiful rainfall. The old mail road from Ahmadnagar enters the Sub-division on the north in the 15th mile from Ahmadnagar, and runs south. The Dhond-Manmád State Railway completely traverses the Sub-division from north to south. In 1881–82, 192,081 acres were under cultivation. Cereals and millets occupied 152,371 acres; pulses, 19,420 acres; oil-seeds, 16,794 acres; fibres, 1653 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 1843 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts, and 1 police circle (*tháná*); regular police, 31 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 131. Land revenue, £12,134.

Srígonda (*Shrígonda*, also called *Chamárgonda*, from Govind, a pious Chamár).—Chief town of the Srígonda Sub-division of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency; situated about 32 miles south of Ahmadnagar city, in lat. 18° 41′ N., and long. 74° 44′ E. Population (1881) 5278, namely, Hindus, 4717; Muhammadans, 424; Jains, 132; and Christians, 5. Sub-judge's court, post-office, market on Mondays, four temples, and two mansions belonging to Sindhia (Gwalior).

Srígovindpur.—Town and municipality in Gurdáspur District, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 41′ N., and long. 75° 32′ E., on the river Rávi, 18 miles south-east of Batála. Population (1881) 4247, namely, 2434 Hindus, 1211 Muhammadans, 598 Sikhs, and 4 'others.' Number of houses, 668. Place of great sanctity amongst the Sikhs,

having been founded by Guru Arjun, who bought the site and built a town, which he called after his son and successor, Har Govind. The proprietary rights are still held by his descendant, Guru Jawáhar Singh, who lives at Kartárpur in the Jálandhar Doáb. Exports of cotton and sugar, the latter in large quantities, by river to Sukkur on the Indus. Police station, post-office, *saráí* (native inn), good school. Municipal revenue in 1881, £269; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3d. per head.

Sríharikot.—Insulated tract of alluvium and marine deposit, in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. It lies between the Pulicat Lake and the sea, stretching from Coromandel to Dugarázpatnam; and it contained in 1871, 13,578 inhabitants, residing in 2064 houses. Not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. Sríharikot contains dense jungle, which under Government management forms a source of firewood supply to Madras city. The wood and jungle produce are collected and carried to the banks of the Pulicat Lake, chiefly by Yánadis, a wild aboriginal tribe, from whence it is conveyed to Madras city by the Buckingham Canal.

Srikákulam.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CHICACOLE.

Sri Kálastri.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. —*See* KALAHASTI.

Srikánta.—Mountain peak in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces, lying in lat. 30° 57′ N., and long. 78° 51′ E., enclosed by a great bend of the Bhágírathí river. A sharp and lofty peak, 20,296 feet above sea-level. Thornton says it is visible from Saháranpur, a distance of 105 miles in a straight line.

Srikundapuram (the *Surrukundapuram* of the India Atlas).—Small village in Malabar District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 3′ N., long. 75° 34′ E. Situated on the right bank of the principal tributary of the Valarpattanam river. Is inhabited almost exclusively by Mappillas (Moplas), who settled here under the protection of the Choyali chieftain, a feudatory of the Kolattiri Rájás. Famous for its mosque, locally believed to be one of the original mosques founded by Malík Ibn Dinár in the 9th century A.D.

Srí Madhopur.—Town in Jaipur State, Rájputána; situated about 40 miles south-east of Tonk. Population (1881) 6847, namely, Hindus, 6279; Muhammadans, 539; and 'others,' 29.

Srínagar (or *Surjyanagar*, 'The City of the Sun').—Capital of the Native State of Kashmír in the Western Himálayas, Northern India. Picturesquely situated in the 'Happy Valley' of Kashmír, about midway between its two ends, and close to the hills which bound its north-western side, on the banks of the river Jehlam, in lat. 34° 5′ 31″ N., and long. 74° 51′ E. The city extends for about 2 miles along the banks of

the river, which divides it into two nearly equal portions, connected by seven bridges. Dr. Ince (in his excellent *Kashmír Handbook*, 1876) states that the average breadth of the river is about 88 yards; its depth is variable, but the average during the summer season is about 18 feet. Its banks were formerly faced with long rectangular blocks of limestone, some of which are of large dimensions, and handsomely carved; but much of the embankment has crumbled or been washed away. There are several fine stone *ghâts* or landing-stairs; and the city is also intersected by several canals, the principal of which are the Sunt-i-kut, the Kut-i-kut, and the Náli-már.

Srínagar is built at an elevation of about 5276 feet above the sea; but is surrounded by low swampy tracts, which render it unhealthy. The population numbers about 150,000,—20,000 being Hindus and the remainder Musalmáns,—living in about 20,000 houses, which are mostly built of wood, three or four storeys high, with pent roofs overlaid with earth. Fires are frequent, and often very destructive. Dr. Ince, who was civil surgeon at Srínagar in 1864 and 1865, thus describes the general appearance of the city:—'The public buildings are few. The principal of them are the *bára-darí*, palace, fort, gun-factory, dispensary, school, and mint; also some ancient mosques, temples, and cemeteries, which the student of Kashmírian history may study with advantage. The streets are generally narrow, and some of them are paved with large and irregular masses of limestone; they are all, however, very dirty, and unfit to be visited by ladies. There are several *bázárs* or market-places in different parts of the city, one of which, called the Mahárájganj, has been lately built for the convenience of visitors, in which all the manufactures peculiar to Kashmír can be readily obtained. There are several large mansions on its outskirts, chiefly occupied by the great shawl merchants and bankers; some of them exhibit beautiful specimens of trellised woodwork, and in other respects are very tastefully fitted up.'

There is a famous poplar avenue, which is the 'Rotten Row' of Srínagar. It was planted by the Sikhs, and is quite straight; about $1\frac{1}{8}$ mile in length, and 56 feet in average width. Dr. Ince states that in 1865 it contained 1714 trees, of which 1699 were poplars and 15 *chenars*.

The *Takht-i-Suláimán*, or 'Throne of Solomon,' is a hill overlooking the city, from which a good view is obtained. On the top is a fine old stone temple, called by the Hindus *Sankar Achárya*; it was originally Buddhist, and was built by Jaloka, son of Asoka, about 220 B.C., but now converted into a mosque. Elevation above sea-level, 6950 feet.

The *Hari Parbat*, or 'Fort Hill,' is an isolated hill on the northern outskirts of the city. It is about 250 feet high, and is crowned by the fort. A wall surrounds the hill, in which the principal gateway,

called the *Kátí Darwáza*, is surmounted by a Persian inscription. Both wall and fort were built by Akbar about 1590 A.D., at a cost of a million sterling. The length of the wall is about 3 miles; its height, 28 feet.

The *Sher Garhí*, within the city, contains the city fort and the royal palace. It is 400 yards long by 200 wide; its walls are about 22 feet high; and the interior contains the state apartments, Government offices, and barracks. The *Jamá Masjid*, or cathedral-mosque, which is also in the city, is a very large four-sided building, with an open square in the centre and a wooden steeple in the middle of each side; the roof of the surrounding cloister is supported by wooden pillars, each formed of a single *deodár* tree about 30 feet high.

The *Dal*, or City Lake of Kashmír, which has been sung by Moore in *Lalla Rookh*, lies on the north-eastern side of the city. It is about 5 miles long, 2½ miles broad, with an average depth of about 10 feet. Its surface in many parts is covered with the famous Kashmírian 'floating gardens.' Shalimár Bagh, well known as the scene of Moore's *Light of the Harem*, is a beautiful pleasure-ground laid out by Jahángír; the *Nazib Bagh*, or 'Garden of Bliss,' another picturesque pleasure-ground, is said to have been first planned by Akbar; and there are several other gardens of similar character in the environs of Srínagar.

The local government of the city is vested in a Viceroy or Governor, assisted by a Financial and Revenue Commissioner, a Judge of the Chief Court, an Accountant-General, a Superintendent of Shawls, and a Judge of the Civil Court. The present Governor resides in the *Sher Garhí*.

Srínagar.—Town in Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces; on the Umar river, 22 miles south-east of Narsinghpur town. Population (1881) 1609. A considerable place in the Gond period, and the quarters of a large garrison under the Maráthás, but now greatly decayed.

Srínagar.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Dhaurahra *parganá*, from which it is separated by the Chauka river; on the east by Tambaur *parganá* of Sítápur; on the south by Kheri *parganá*, the river Ul marking the boundary line; and on the west by Bhur *parganá*. Area, 229 square miles, of which 120 are returned as under cultivation. Population (1881) 88,499, namely, Hindus 77,351, and Muhammadans 11,148. Number of villages, 146, chiefly belonging to the *tálukdárs* of Oel and Mahewa. A few villages are owned by the *kanúngo* of Kheri.

Srínagar.—*Tahsíl* of Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces; embracing the whole District, and consisting of a wild mountain country along the valley of the Alaknanda. The eleven *parganás* comprising the *tahsíl* and District are—Bárasan, Badahan, Chandpur,

Chandkot, Diwálgarh, Dasolí, Nágpur, Painkhandá, Gangá Salan, Malla Salan, and Tála Salan. Estimated area, 5500 square miles, of which 209 square miles are cultivated. Population (1881) 345,629, namely, males 170,755, and females 174,874. Hindus, 343,186; Muhammadans, 2077; Jains, 69; and 'others,' 297. Land revenue, £9612; total Government revenue, £10,920; estimated rental paid by cultivators, £19,116. [For further details, see the District article, GARHWAL, *ante*, vol. v. pp. 16–23.]

Srínagar.—Principal village in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces; situated in the valley of the Alaknanda, in lat. 30° 13′ N., and long. 78° 48′ 15″ E. A place of small importance, only noticeable as the most populous village in the District, with 2100 inhabitants in 1881. The District administrative head-quarters are at PAURI. Several Hindu temples; general air of decay and poverty. Once the capital of the Garhwál Rájás. Heat oppressive in summer, owing to the position in an enclosed valley.

Srínagar.—Decayed town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Nowgong (Naugáon) road among the Mahoba Hills, 63 miles south of Hamírpur town. Population (1881) 4186. Founded by Mohan Singh, illegitimate son of Chhatar Sál, the Bundela chief, about 1710 A.D. Mohan Singh built a fort on a hill overlooking the town, where was situated the mint from which the Srínagarí rupees were issued, still the commonest coinage throughout Southern Bundelkhand. He also constructed the Mohan Ságar, a fine tank, containing a picturesque little island, the building on which is now greatly out of repair. Sacked during the Mutiny of 1857 by the outlaw Despat, and has never since recovered its prosperity. Ruins of fine houses occur in every part, wholly or partially uninhabited. Police station, post-office, village school, *bázár*. Declining manufacture of brass idols.

Srínagar.—Village in Ballia *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Bairia-Reotí road, 24 miles from Ballia town, in lat. 25° 49′ 10″ N., long. 83° 28′ 06″ E. Srínagar is not a separate village, but an aggregate of eleven hamlets forming part of the Damodarpur *táluk* or estate belonging to the Mahárájá of Dumráon, and containing a total population in 1881 of 4432 souls.

Sringeri (or *Sringa-giri*; lit. 'Hill of Sringa').—Sacred village in Kádúr District, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 25′ 10″ N., and long. 75° 17′ 50″ E., on the left bank of the Tunga river. Population (1871) 1661; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. According to local tradition, the spot where Vibhándaka Rishi performed penance, and where Rishya Sringa, a celebrated character of the *Rámáyana*, was born. In the 8th century, the famous Sivaite reformer Sankar Achárya settled here, bringing, it is said, from Kashmír the image of Sárad-amma or

Saraswatí. (But see INDIA, vol. vi.) The spiritual throne which he founded has been handed down in unbroken succession to the present day. The present Sringeri Swámí, named Narasinha Achári, the *jagat gúrú* of the Smarta Bráhmans, is a man of great learning. His claims to sanctity are admitted by all votaries of Siva. It is his habit to be absent for many years on tours to the farthest corners of India; and the enormous contributions collected from the pious during these expeditions are lavishly expended on hospitality and charitable works. The *mágani* of Sringeri, comprising a fertile tract in the upper valley of the Tungá, forms an ancient endowment of the *math* or conventional establishment over which the *gúrú* presides; and a monthly grant of £100 is allowed in addition by the Mysore State. The village consists of a single long street, with a loop on one side encircling the small hill of Sringa-giri, on which stands the temple of Sárad-amma, the tutelary deity of the place. Several large festivals are held during the year, each attended by from 3000 to 10,000 people. On these occasions all classes are fed at the expense of the *math;* cloths and bodices are distributed to the women, and pieces of money to the men. For list of 29 successive heads of the monastery, see H. H. Wilson's *Religion of the Hindus*, i. 201, ed. 1862. In this list Sankara stands second.

Srínivaspur (now (1884) called *Chintámáni*). — *Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore State. Area, 331 square miles, of which 82 are under cultivation. Population (1881) 52,436, namely, males 26,029, and females 26,407. Hindus number 49,101; Muhammadans, 3329; and Christians, 6. Much of the area is occupied with forest-clad hills. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 61 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 538. Revenue, £15,537.

Srínivaspur.—Village in Kolár District, Mysore State; 14 miles by road north-north-east of Kolár town; head-quarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Population (1871) 2843; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. Formerly known as Pápan-halli; but the name was changed by the *díwán* Purnaiya, who called it after his son Srínivasa Murti. Rough bits for horses and other small articles of iron are manufactured.

Sríperambúdúr (called also *Sríperumátúr*).—Town in Conjeveram *táluk*, Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency; situated on the western trunk road, 25 miles from Madras city. Population (1881) 5092, namely, Hindus, 4976; Muhammadans, 112; and Christians, 4; number of houses, 812. The birthplace of the celebrated Hindu reformer Rámanujá, 1016 A.D. A stone chamber is erected over the spot where he was born. Rámanujá founded no less than 700 colleges, and sought to secure the permanence of his religious system by establishing 89 hereditary *gúrú*-ships. Those at Conjeveram, Srírangam,

Rámeswaram, Totádri, and Ahobalam still remain. Rámanujá's philosophical system is chiefly distinguished by his adherence to the *Vaisishtha Adwaita* or 'almost non-dual doctrine.' In contradiction to the *Adwaita* doctrine, he held that the divine soul and human soul are not absolutely one, but are closely connected. Everlasting happiness was not to be obtained by knowledge alone, however profound; in addition, a devout observance of public and private worship was essential.

Srírámpur.—Sub-division and town in Húglí District, Bengal.—*See* SERAMPUR.

Srírangam (*Seringham*).—Town in Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 10° 51′ 50″ N., and long. 78° 43′ 55″ E., 2 miles north of Trichinopoli city, and almost in the centre of the island of Srírangam, formed by the bifurcation of the Káveri (Cauvery) into two branches at a point about 11 miles west of Trichinopoli. Population (1881) 19,773, namely, males 9330, and females 10,443; occupying 3372 houses. Hindus number 19,543; Muhammadans, 61; Christians, 168; and 'others,' 1. The southern branch of the river retains the name of Káveri, while the northern channel is known as the Coleroon (Kollidam). In his retirement at Srírangam, the celebrated Hindu reformer Rámanujá worked out his system of the Vishnuite religion, which he preached through the length and breadth of Southern India. He died at Srírangam about the middle of the 11th century.

The town chiefly owes its fame to its great temple dedicated to Vishnu. The temple and the town are indeed almost conterminous, the greater portion of the houses having been built inside the temple walls.

The shrine has been fully described by Fergusson in his *History of Indian Architecture*. He makes it an illustration of the way in which many South Indian temples have grown around a small original shrine, so that the finest parts of the whole structure are in the wrong place, that is, outside; and the absence of a general design spoils the effect of the details. 'The temple which has been most completely marred by this false system,' writes Mr. Fergusson, 'is that at Srírangam, which is certainly the largest, and if its principle of design could be reversed, would be the finest in the South of India. Here, the central enclosure is small and insignificant, and except that its dome is gilt, has nothing to distinguish it from an ordinary village shrine. The next enclosure, however, is more magnificent. It encloses the hall of 1000 columns, which measures some 450 feet by 130 feet. The number of columns is 16 in front by 60 in depth, or 960 altogether. They consequently are not spaced more than 10 feet apart from centre to centre; and as at one end the hall is hardly over 10 feet high, and in the loftiest place only 15 or 16 feet, and the pillars

spaced nearly evenly over the floor, it will be easily understood how little effect such a building really produces. The pillars are, however, each of a single block of granite, and all carved more or less elaborately.

'A finer portico stretches across the court from *gopura* to *gopura;* the pillars in it are more widely spaced, and the width of the central aisle is double that of those on the sides, and crosses the portico in the centre, making a transept; its height, too, is double that of the side aisles. It is a pleasing and graceful architectural design; the other is only an evidence of misapplied labour. The next four enclosures have nothing very remarkable in them, being generally inhabited by the Bráhmans and persons connected with the temple. Each, however, has, or was intended to have, four *gopuras*, one on each face; and some of these are of considerable elaboration. The outer enclosure is practically a *bázár*, filled with shops, where pilgrims are lodged and fed. The wall that bounds it measures 2475 feet by 2880 feet; and had its *gopuras* been finished, they would probably have surpassed all others in the South to the same extent as these dimensions exceed those of any other known temple. The northern *gopura*, leading to the river and Trichinopoli, measures 130 feet in width by 100 feet in depth; the opening through it measures 21 feet 6 inches and twice that in height. The four jambs or gate posts are each of a single slab of granite more than 40 feet in height, and the roofing slabs throughout measure from 23 to 24 feet. Had the ordinary brick pyramid of the usual proportion been added to this, the whole would have risen to a height of nearly 300 feet. Even as it is, it is one of the most imposing masses in Southern India, and perhaps because it never was quite finished, is in severe and good taste throughout. Looked at from a distance, or in any direction whence the whole can be grasped at once, these 14 or 15 great gate towers cannot fail to produce a certain effect; but even then it can only be by considering them as separate buildings. As parts of one whole, their arrangement is exactly that which enables them to produce the least possible effect that can be obtained either from their mass or ornament. Had the four great outer *gopuras* formed the four sides of a central hall, and the others gone on diminishing in three or four directions to the exterior, the effect of the whole would have been increased in a surpassing degree. To accomplish this, however, one other defect must have been remedied; a gateway even 150 feet wide in a wall nearly 2000 feet in extent is a solecism nothing can redeem; but had the walls been broken in plan or star-shaped like the plan of Chalukyan temples, light and shade would have been obtained, and due proportion of parts, without any inconvenience. But if the Dravidians ever had it in them to think of such things, it was not during the 17th and 18th centuries, to which everything in this temple seems to belong.'

During the annual festival in December or January, one yard is covered by a large *pandal* (shed), erected every year at a cost of about £300. In booths round this *pandal*, which is handsomely decorated, are to be seen various figures of gods and other mythical personages. Among the groups of images, that of a very sallow-faced Collector administering justice, surrounded by peons, with a prisoner in front of him, is never omitted. Running round this enclosure is a street in which there are ordinary dwelling-houses and shops. The Madras Municipal Act (III. of 1871) was extended to Srírangam in 1871. Since that time, the municipality have done much towards the general conservancy of the place, and have built a hospital close to the southern gate of the temple, at which a large number of in-patients and out-patients are treated. Municipal income (1883–84), £1377; incidence of taxation, 1s. 3½d. per head.

For the part played by Srírangam as a fortress, in the wars of the Karnátik, the reader is referred to the article on TRICHINOPOLI DISTRICT.

Srírángapatnam.—Town in Mysore District, Mysore State.—*See* SERINGAPATAM.

Srírangavarapukot (*Srungavarapukotá*).—*Zamíndárí táluk* or Sub-division of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Area, 102 square miles. Population (1881) 126,610, namely, males 63,519, and females 63,091; occupying 25,740 houses, in 1 town and 177 villages. Hindus number 125,308; Muhammadans, 1278; Christians, 8; and 'others,' 16.

Srírangavarapukot.—Head-quarters of Srírangavarapukot *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 18° 6′ 34″ N., long. 83° 11′ 11″ E. Population (1881) 5329, inhabiting 1091 houses. Hindus number 5210; Muhammadans, 103; and 'others,' 16. Court of a sub-magistrate.

Srí-surjya-pahár.—Isolated hill in Goálpárá District, Assám; situated on the left bank of the Brahmaputra, 8 miles north-east of Goálpárá town; supposed from its name ('Hill of the Sun') to have been used as an observatory by Hindu astronomers of old.

Srívaikuntham (*Srivigundam*).—Town in Tenkarái *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 38′ 20″ N., long. 77° 57′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 7781, occupying 1763 houses. Hindus number 6989; Muhammadans, 573; and Christians, 219. The fort is occupied by a caste of Súdras called Kottai Vellálars, who have peculiar customs. There is also a fine temple; police station; post-office.

Srívaikuntham.—Anicut on the Tambraparni river, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TAMBRAPARNI RIVER.

Srivillipatur.—The north-west *táluk* or Sub-division of Tinnevelli

District, Madras Presidency. Area, 571 square miles. Population (1881) 163,608, namely, males 80,441, and females 83,167; occupying 36,172 houses, in 4 towns and 101 villages. Hindus number 159,540; Muhammadans, 2115; Christians, 1952; and 'others,' 1. The country to the west undulates considerably, owing to the numerous streams which descend from the mountains. Rather more than half of the *táluk*, including the villages lying to the west, belongs to the red clay loam and sand series; while the easterly villages have a black cotton soil or one of black soil mixed with gravel and saline earth. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 51 men. Land revenue, £34,247.

Srivillipatur (otherwise called *Nachiyarkoil*). — Chief town of Srivillipatur *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 18,256, namely, males 9028, and females 9228; occupying 4028 houses. Hindus number 17,422; Muhammadans, 353; Christians, 480; and 'others,' 1. Temple, with an annual car procession attended by about 10,000 people. The centre of the local traffic of the *táluk*. Police station; post-office.

Sríwardhán.—Town in Janjira State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 18° 4′ N., long. 73° 4′ E.; situated about 12 miles south of Janjira town. Appears in the leading European travellers as Ziffardan. Population (1881) 7425. In the 16th and 17th century, under Ahmadnagar, and afterwards under Bijápur, Sríwardhán was a port of consequence. It has still a considerable trade, which in 1881–82 was of the value of £3042—imports, £1182; and exports, £1860. The trade consists chiefly of areca-nuts of a superior kind, highly valued at Bombay. Annual fair attended by about 3000 persons.

Srughna.—Ruined town and capital of an ancient Hindu kingdom in the Kurukshetra tract.—*See* SUGH.

Srungavarapukota. — *Zamíndárí táluk* and town, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SRIRANGAVARAPUKOT.

Subalgarh.—Village and ruined fort in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 44′ N., and long. 78° 15′ E., on the Hardwár road, 10 miles north-west of Najíbábád. Extensive fortifications surround the decayed town, which consists of little else but a mass of ruins.

Subankhálí. — Market village in Maimansingh District, Bengal; situated on the Jamuná river, 44 miles west of Nasírábád, with which it is connected by a tolerably good road. A considerable export and import trade in jute is carried on.

Subansirí.—Great river in the north-east of the Province of Assam, which contributes to form the main stream of the Brahmaputra. Its source and upper course, like those of the Brahmaputra itself, are entirely unknown; but it is supposed to rise far up among the moun-

tains of Tibet, and to flow for a long distance in an easterly direction before it turns south to break through the northern mountain barrier of the Assam valley. It enters the District of Lakhimpur from the Mírí Hills, and, still flowing south, divides the Sub-division of North Lakhimpur into two almost equal portions. Before it reaches the Brahmaputra, it forms, together with the channel of the Lohit, the large island known as the MAJULI *char*, and finally empties itself into the main stream in Sibságar District. In the hills the bed of the river is greatly broken up by rocks and rapids; but in the plains it is navigable by small steamers as far up as Pátálipám, 16 miles from the Sub-divisional town of North Lakhimpur. Below this place it is nowhere fordable, but it is crossed by three ferries. Its principal known tributaries beyond the British frontier are the Kamlápáni, Siplu, Gáiu, and Náobhogá. Within Lakhimpur District it is joined by the Dulung, Dirpái, Sáuldhuá, Sumdiri, Rangánadi, and Dikrang. From time immemorial the bed of the Subansirí has yielded gold-dust, washing for which affords a scanty living to a class known as Sonwás. In former times the banks of this river furnished abundant supplies of caoutchouc, but these have now been exhausted by indiscriminate destruction of the trees. The Subansirí is liable to sudden floods of great violence. In 1882, a tea-garden situated close to the spot where the river leaves the hills was almost completely destroyed by a flood. Most of the buildings were washed away, and upwards of 40 lives were lost.

Subara (or *Siobára* or *Shiobara*). — Petty Bhíl (Bheel) State in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Subargum.—Hill in Dárjíling District, Bengal; one of the principal peaks in the Singálilá range. Situated in lat. 27° 9′ 45″ N., and long. 88° 3′ 15″ E., upon the eastern frontier of the District, bordering upon Nepál. Height above the sea, 10,430 feet.

Subarnarekhá (*'The Streak of Gold'*).—River of Bengal; rises 10 miles south-west of Ránchí in Lohárdagá District, and flows towards the north-east, leaving the main plateau in a picturesque waterfall called Hundrughágh. From this point it forms the boundary with Hazáribágh District, its course being eastwards to the triple boundary junction with Mánbhúm District. Hence it bends southwards into Singhbhúm, whence it passes into the State of Morbhanj, and afterwards enters Midnapur District from the north-west. It traverses the jungle western tract of this District till it reaches Balasor, through which it flows in a tortuous southern course, with gigantic windings east and west, until it finally falls into the Bay of Bengal, in lat. 21° 34′ 15″ N., and long. 87° 23′ E., after a course of 317 miles, having drained an area of 11,300 square miles. The chief tributaries of the Subarnarekhá in Chutiá Nágpur are the Kánchí and Karkari, both joining it from the

west. The river is navigable by country craft for about 16 miles from its mouth, up to which point it is also tidal. During the rains, rice boats of 2 tons burden can make their way into Morbhanj. The banks of the Subarnarekhá, in the lower part of its course, are high and steep on the outer curve of the bends, and flat and sandy on the inner; the bed is studded with islands. The bordering country is cultivated to within a few miles of the sea, during the cold-weather months. The Subarnarekhá is only fordable at places within Balasor District; it is embanked here in its lower reaches.

Subarnarekhá.—Port consisting of a demarcated portion of the river of the same name; situated in lat. 21° 34′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 22′ E., about 12 miles from the sea by water route, or about 6 miles in a direct line. In early times, this seems to have been the most important port on the Orissa coast; and it is especially interesting as the site of the first maritime English settlement in Bengal, which was founded on the ruins of the earlier Portuguese factory at PIPPLI. But of these colonies no traces now exist, and the river has so often changed its course that it is impossible to identify the precise spot of their location. In January 1875, Captain Harris, the Conservator of Orissa Ports, stated that the entrance to the Subarnarekhá from the east had closed up, and that the only channel now remaining was to the south-west of the shoals in the mouth, which are almost bare at low tide. The port is unsafe during the south-west monsoon, as it presents a dead lee shore with breakers right across the mouth, the sole obstacle to navigation; but within the bar the Subarnarekhá possesses a magnificent deep channel. The imports in 1873–75 were *nil;* the exports were valued at £2554. In 1881–82 the imports were £1742 in value, entirely for coal, imported on account of the Orissa Canal, then under construction; the exports in that year were valued at only £967. The port is principally visited by fishing boats, which in fair weather issue out in squadrons, and sail down as far as Purí. No regular survey of the Subarnarekhá river itself, as distinguished from its entrance, has yet been made.

Subáthu.—Hill cantonment and sanatorium in Simla District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 58′ N., and long. 77° 2′ E., on a table-land at the extremity of the Simla range, overlooking the Ghambar river. Lies above the old road from Kálka to Simla, 9 miles from Kasauli and 23 from Simla station. Held as a military post since the close of the Gúrkha war in 1816. Barracks exist for a whole regiment. Small fort above the parade-ground, formerly of military importance, now used as a store-room. Branch of American Presbyterian Mission maintains school, and an asylum for lepers supported by voluntary contributions. Elevation above sea-level, 4500 feet.

Subeha.—*Parganá* in Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the

north by the river Gúmti, on the east by Jagdispur *parganá* in Sultánpur, on the south by Inhauna *parganá* in Rái Bareli, and on the west by Haidargarh *parganá*. Area, 88 square miles, or 56,467 acres, of which 30,783 acres are cultivated. Population (1881) 50,144, namely, males 24,191, and females 25,953. Hindus number 45,361, and Muhammadans 4783. Number of villages, 86; houses, 9794. Government land revenue, £6611. This tract was formerly held by the Bhars, who were expelled about 900 years ago by the Muhammadans in the time of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd. Subsequently it was taken possession of by Bais Rájputs. Of the 86 villages comprising the *parganá*, 22 are held in *tálukdárí* (owned by Muhammadans), 3 in *zamíndárí*, and 61 in *pattidárí* tenure.

Subeha.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 38′ N., and long. 81° 34′ E., 52 miles north-west of Sultánpur, and 30 miles east of Bara Banki town, near the river Gúmti. Several tanks and masonry wells, bi-weekly market, manufacture of country cloth, school, police, post and registry office, and fort. Population (1881) 3332, namely, Hindus 1887, and Muhammadans 1445; number of houses, 652. Subeha is supposed to have been a Bhar town prior to the Muhammadan invasion. The principal landed family, that of the late Chaudharí Sarfaráz Ahmad, traces descent from one of the generals of Sayyid Sálár. But little is known of the family till 1616 A.D., when Shaikh Násir was appointed Chaudharí of *parganá* Subeha by the Emperor Sháh Jahán. His descendants divided the *parganá* amongst themselves, but the office of Chaudharí remained undivided; and in 1792, Chaudharí Imám Bakhsh commenced to absorb all the separate properties into his own estate. Chaudharí Sarfaráz Ahmad continued this career of aggrandizement, and obtained also an estate in Rái Bareli District.

Subrahmanya.—Hill in the Western Ghát, Coorg, Southern India. —*See* PUSHPAGIRI. Also a fair on the northern frontier of Coorg, below Subrahmanya hill, held in December, which attracts a great number of people. With the fair is connected a cattle market, and the sale of metal vessels and idols.

Suchin.—State and town in Surat District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SACHIN.

Sudámánpur.—Village in Dalmau *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated 2 miles north of the Ganges. Named after its founder Sudámán Singh, a Janwár Rájput, who settled here about 500 years ago. Population (1881) 2178, namely, Hindus 2094, and Muhammadans 84.

Sudámra Dhándhulpur.—Petty State in the Jhálawár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 27 villages, with 6 shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 135 square miles. Population (1881) 7431. Estimated revenue, £2052; of which £238, 2s.

is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £74, 6s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sudásna.—Native State in the Political Agency of Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 5661. It is situated in the Náni Márwár division of Mahi Kántha, and its western boundary marches with that of Pálanpur. The principal agricultural products are millet, wheat, Indian corn, rice, gram, and sugar-cane.

The chief traces descent from Umar Singh, a son of Ráná Punja of Dánta, on whose death he obtained Sudásna and afterwards certain other villages, and a fourth share of transit dues paid by pilgrims visiting the shrine of Amba Bhawání. The present (1883) chief is Thákur Parbat Singh, a Bárad Rájput of the Pramár clan. He is sixty-four years old, and manages his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated revenue of £661; and pays a tribute of £103, 12s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £36, 2s. to the Rájá of Edar. The family follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession, but have no *sanad* authorizing adoption.

Sudásna.—Chief town of Sudásna State, Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency; situated on the bank of the Saraswatí. Four and a half miles to the north-west is a cave temple of Mokheswar Mahádeo, with a ruined monastery of sandstone and brick. Here Hindus of all castes offer the water of the Saraswatí to Mahádeo, and to a *pípal* (Ficus religiosa) tree. Annual fair.

Sudhárám (*Noákháli*).—Principal town, municipality, and head-quarters of Noákháli District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Noákháli *khál*, a natural watercourse, which gives its name to the District. Lat. 22° 48′ 15″ N., long. 91° 8′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 5124, namely, Hindus, 2560; Muhammadans, 2528; and 'others,' 36. Municipal revenue (1883–84), £482, of which £354 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 4½d. per head. Sudhárám is so called after one Sudhárám Mazumdár, a resident landlord, who dug the only large tank in the place. The town now lies about 10 miles inland, but it was once on the sea-coast. During the rains, the tidal bore sometimes rushes up the river even farther than Sudhárám. Good roads to the Pheni river, to Ráipur, and Begamganj. The town contains a Roman Catholic chapel, and numerous mosques and tanks.

Sufed Koh.—Mountain range in Afghánistán.—*See* SAFED KOH.

Sugh (or *Srughna*).—Ancient town, now a petty village, in Jagádhri *tahsíl*, Ambála District, Punjab; situated in a bend of the old bed of the Jumna, now a part of the Western Jumna Canal, close to Jagádhri and Buriyá towns. Srughna is mentioned by Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese pilgrim of the 7th century, as a town 3½ miles in circuit, the capital of a kingdom and seat of considerable learning, both Buddhistic and Bráhmanical. He describes the kingdom of Srughna as extending

to the mountains on the north, and to the Ganges on the east, with the Yamuna or Jumna flowing through the midst of it. The capital he represents as having been partly in ruins; but General Cunningham thinks that there is evidence in the coins found on the spot to show that it was occupied down to the time of the Muhammadan conquest. He thus describes the extent and position of the ruins:—

'The village of Sugh occupies one of the most remarkable positions that I have seen during the whole course of my researches. It is situated on a projecting triangular spur of high land, and is surrounded on three sides by the bed of the old Jumna, which is now the Western Jumna Canal. On the north and west faces it is further protected by two deep ravines, so that the position is a ready-made stronghold, which is covered on all sides, except the west, by natural defences. In shape it is almost triangular, with a large projecting fort or citadel at each of the angles. The site of the north fort is now occupied by the castle and village of Dayálgarh. The village of Amadalpur stands on the site of the south-east fort, and that of the south-west is unoccupied. Each of these forts is 1500 feet long and 1000 feet broad, and each face of the triangle which connects them together is upwards of half-a-mile in length, that to the east being 4000 and those to the north-west and south-west 3000 feet each. The whole circuit of the position is therefore 22,000 feet, or upwards of 4 miles, which is considerably more than the 3½ miles of Hiuen Tsiang's measurement. But as the north fort is separated from the main position by a deep sandy ravine, called the Rohára *náli*, it is possible that it may have been unoccupied at the time of the pilgrim's visit. This would reduce the circuit of the position to 19,000 feet, or upwards of 3½ miles, and bring it into accord with the pilgrim's measurement. The small village of Sugh occupied the west side of the position, and the small town of Buriah lies immediately to the north of Dayálgarh.' The present village of Sugh contains about 125 houses or huts.

Suháwal.—State and town in the Bághelkhand Agency, Central India.—*See* SOHAWAL.

Suigám.—Native State in the Political Superintendency of Pálanpur, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; bounded on the north and east by Wáo State, on the south by Chádchat State, and on the west by the Salt Desert or Rann. The State is about 20 miles long by 8 miles broad, and covers an area of 220 square miles; it contained a population in 1881 of 11,521 persons. The country is flat and open; the soil produces poor crops of the common grains. A scanty supply of brackish water is found at a depth of 15 feet. The chief's family is of the same origin as that of the Ráná of Wáo. The territory was about 420 years ago granted to Pachánjí, the youngest son of Ráná Sangájí, and, like Wáo, is sub-divided amongst a numerous independent *bháyád* or brotherhood. Like their brethren of Wáo, the chiefs of

Suigám were noted freebooters, and in the early part of the present century gave every assistance to the Khosás in their predatory raids. But since 1826, when they entered into an agreement with Colonel Miles, they have become peaceful cultivators of the soil. The present (1883) chief of Suigám is Thákur Bhupat Singh, a Rájput of the Chauhán clan; he is sixty-one years of age. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £1000. The family follow the rule of primogeniture, but have no *sanad* authorizing adoption. School with 67 pupils in 1882–83.

Suigám. — Chief town of the Suigám State, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 24° 9′ N., long. 71° 21′ E. During the establishment of British power in north Gujarát, Suigám was a somewhat important outpost. The country round suffered much from earthquakes in 1819, the whole tract becoming salt and the wells useless.

Sujángarh. — Town in Bíkaner (Bickaneer) State, Rájputána; situated about 80 miles south-east of Bíkaner town. Population (1881) 5238, namely, Hindus, 3698; Muhammadans, 784; and 'others,' 756.

Sujánpur.—Town in Gurdáspur District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 19′ N., and long. 75° 40′ E., at the foot of the hills, in the corner of the Bári Doáb below Núrpur. Distant from Gurdáspur town 23 miles north-east, from Pathánkot 4 miles north-west. Population (1881) 6039, namely, 1968 Hindus, 3988 Muhammadans, 79 Sikhs, and 4 'others;' number of houses, 974. Exports of rice, turmeric, and hemp to Amritsar (Umritsur) and Lahore, principally by boats upon the Rávi. Municipal revenue (1883–84), £366; expenditure, £371; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2¾d. per head.

Sujánpur Tira.—Town and municipality in Hamírpur *tahsíl*, Kángra District, Punjab; situated on the bank of the Beas (Bías), in lat. 31° 50′ N., and long. 76° 33′ E., 15 miles above Nádaun. Population (1881) 3431, namely, Hindus, 2913; Muhammadans, 488; Jains, 25; and 'others,' 5. Number of houses, 706. Municipal income (1883–84), £168, or an average of 11¾d. per head. The palace of the ancient Katoch dynasty crowns a height overlooking the town. Founded in 1758 by Abhi Chand, great-grandfather of Sansár Chand (*see* KANGRA DISTRICT). Subsequently enlarged by his son and grandson, the latter of whom founded the town of Sujánpur. Sansár Chand completed the building, and held his court here. The palace, a residence of regal proportions, and highly finished in point of workmanship, bears the name of Tira, whence the double title of the place. Picturesque town, having a handsome old parade-ground, a grassy plain surrounded by noble trees. Local trade centre of considerable importance; colony of workers in gems, and jewellers, introduced by the Katoch princes from Gujrát and Delhi.

Sujáwal.—*Táluk* in Sháhbandar Sub-division, Karáchí District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 267 square miles. Population (1881) 30,314, namely, males 16,792, and females 13,522; occupying 5403 houses in 84 villages. Muhammadans number 26,679; Hindus, 3292; Sikhs, 242; aborigines, 99; and Christians, 2. In 1882–83, the area assessed for land revenue was 54,786 acres; and the area under actual cultivation was 28,667 acres. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 5; regular police, 34 men. Revenue, £5016.

Sujáwal.—Town in Gwalior territory, Málwá, Central India; situated 44 miles north-west of Bhopál. Population (1881) 7136, namely, Hindus, 4701; Muhammadans, 1946; and 'others,' 489.

Sukesar.—Mountain in Sháhpur District, Punjab.—*See* SAKESWAR.

Suket.—One of the Hill States under the Political Superintendence of the Government of the Punjab, lying between 31° 13′ 45″ and 31° 35′ 25″ N. lat., and between 76° 49′ and 77° 26′ E. long., on the north side of the Sutlej river, which separates it from the cis-Sutlej Hill States. Area, 474 square miles, with 1 town and 219 villages; number of houses, 8658; families, 9517. Population (1881) 52,484, namely, males 29,280, and females 23,204. Average density of population, 111 persons per square mile. Hindus number 51,776; Muhammadans, 695; and Sikhs, 13. Estimated revenue of the chief, £10,000, of which £1100 is paid as tribute to the British Government. The country of Suket was united with that of Mandi until about the year 1200 A.D. The separation was followed by frequent wars between the two States, with varying success. The country eventually fell under Sikh supremacy, which was exchanged for that of the British Government by the treaty of Lahore in 1846; and in that year full sovereignty was conceded to the Rájput Rájá, Agar Sen, and his heirs. A *sanad* conferring the right of adoption was granted in 1862. Rájá Agar Sen died in 1875, and was succeeded by his son Rudra Sen, who was born about 1828. Rájá Rúdra Sen was deposed in 1878 in consequence of misgovernment. He was succeeded by his son Dasht Nikandan Sen in March 1879, during whose minority the administration was carried on by a Native Superintendent, assisted by a Council. The Rájá came of age in February 1884, and now administers the State in person. The Rájá of Suket receives a salute of 11 guns. A small force of 40 cavalry and 365 infantry is maintained.

Suket.—Mountain range in Kángra District, Punjab.—*See* JALORI.

Suketa.—The popular form of Sáketa, one of the classical names borne by AJODHYA, the ancient capital of Oudh. See Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India*, pp. 401–5 (ed. 1871).

Sukheta.—River of Oudh, rising in lat. 27° 55′ N., and long. 80° 7′ E., and forming the boundary between Sháhjahánpur and Kheri Dis-

tricts. It flows in a south-easterly direction for about 20 miles from its source, and turning to the south-west, enters Hardoi District, and falls into the Garra in lat. 27° 18′ N., and long. 80° 2′ E. Total length, about 84 miles. It becomes a torrent in the rains, and cuts off communication with Sháhjahánpur.

Sukhpura. — Village in Bánsdih *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 50′ 46″ N., and long. 84° 08′ 32″ E., on the Garwár-Bánsdih road, 6 miles from Bánsdih town. Population (1881) 4218. Sukhpura is the principal village of the estate (*táluk*) of the same name, which, with the exception of a very small share, is still in the possession of the heirs of the Naraulia Rájputs, with whom the permanent settlement was made. It is a flourishing village, possessing two sugar factories and a primary school. There are two rival *bázárs*, which are held twice a week.

Sukhu-chak.—Town in Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 24′ N., long. 75° 14′ E. Population (1881) 3355, namely, 2029 Hindus, 1330 Muhammadans, and 5 Sikhs; number of houses, 638. Municipal income in 1883–84, £174; expenditure, £144; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 0½d. per head.

Sukkur (*Sakhar*).—Sub-division of Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1173 square miles. Population (1881) 209,467, namely, males 114,743, and females 94,724; occupying 32,396 houses, in 3 towns and 246 villages. Muhammadans number 142,450, of whom 64,374 only are females; Hindus, 40,748; Sikhs, 24,736; aborigines, 942; Christians, 523; Párs'ís, 58; Bráhmos, 8; and Jews, 2.

Bounded north and west by the Upper Sind Frontier District, east by the Indus, and south by Lárkhána. Head-quarters at SUKKUR TOWN, which is also the head-quarters of Shikárpur District. The country consists of a level plain, broken only at Sukkur by a low range of limestone hills. Highly cultivated in parts, and diversified by lakes and forests. The chief canals in the Sub-division are the Sindwá, the Begári, the Alíbahar, and the Sukkur. Irrigation is also effected by *léts* or floods. Game, abundant; fisheries, numerous; minerals, salt, and saltpetre. Principal crops—*joár* (Sorghum vulgare), *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), wheat, barley, rice, indigo, cotton, and tobacco. Figs, mulberries, apples, mangoes, dates, etc. are also grown. In 1882–83, the area assessed for land revenue was 146,658 acres, and the area under actual cultivation was 121,706 acres. The commerce of the Sub-division centres in the two large towns of SHIKARPUR and SUKKUR. Annual fairs at Lakhi Thar, Jind Pír, Old Sukkur, Naushahro, and Jhali; the first of these is attended by from 20,000 to 25,000 persons. Total length of roads, 500 miles. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway from Sukkur town runs south along the eastern boundary. The Sind-Pishin Railway strikes east *viâ* Shikárpur from Ruk station on the Sind, Punjab, and

Delhi Railway. Ferries, 24, of which 9 are across the Indus. Telegraph line from Sukkur to Shikárpur, and thence to Jacobábád, Quetta, and Karáchí. The total revenue of the Sub-division amounted in 1881–82 to £51,237, of which £45,968 was derived from imperial and £5269 from local sources. The land revenue, *abkári* or excise, and stamp duties furnish the chief items. The tenures obtaining in this Sub-division are the *maurúsi hári* (lit. 'hereditary cultivator') and the *pattidári*. The extent of land held in *jágír* is 16,000 acres. There are 3 municipalities in the Sub-division, viz. Shikárpur, Sukkur, and Garhi Yásin; their aggregate receipts in 1883–84 were £22,467. The police force numbered (1883) 472 officers and men. Sukkur is the seat of the District and Sessions Judge, and Shikárpur of the sub-ordinate Judge. Number of Government schools (1883), 36, with 3491 pupils. Normal and Anglo-vernacular school at Sukkur, and high school at Shikárpur; 4 girls' schools; 5 Hindi-Sindi schools, with 1277 pupils. Two hospitals and two dispensaries in the Sub-division.

Sukkur (*Sakhar*).—*Táluk* of the Sukkur Sub-division, Shikárpur, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 284 square miles. Population (1881) 78,627, namely, males 44,340, and females 34,287; occupying 12,249 houses, in 1 town and 72 villages. Muhammadans number 53,496; Hindus, 14,876; Sikhs, 9650; Christians, 383; aborigines, 169; Párs'ís, 50; Bráhmos, 2; and Jew, 1. In 1882–83, the area assessed for land revenue was 34,136 acres, and the area under actual cultivation 32,363 acres. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 6 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 76 men. Revenue, £11,817.

Sukkur (*Sakhar*).—Town and head-quarters of Sukkur Sub-division and of Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 27° 42′ N., and long. 68° 54′ 30″ E., on the right or western bank of the Indus, opposite Rohri. Midway between these two towns lies the island fortress of BUKKUR, and a little southward the wooded island of Sádh Bela. Sukkur is connected by road with Shikárpur, 24 miles north-west, and by railway (Sind-Pishin) *viâ* Ruk, 28 miles. By the Indus, it has communication with Múltán (Mooltan) and Kotri. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway runs from Sukkur to Kotri, and so to the port of Karáchí (Kurrachee). The Indus has not yet (1886) been bridged; although a magnificent cantilever railway bridge is under construction at Sukkur, and is now approaching completion. A powerful steam-ferry at present keeps open communication with Rohri, on the opposite bank of the river, which is in direct connection by rail (the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line) with Múltán and the Punjab.

A range of low limestone hills, utterly devoid of vegetation, slopes down to the river; and it is on this rocky site that New Sukkur, as distinguished from the old town of the same name about a mile

distant, is partly situated. Scattered about are the ruins of numerous tombs; and at the western side of the town, overlooking the river, is the lofty minaret of Mír Masum Sháh, erected, it is supposed, about 1607 A.D. Sukkur contains the usual public offices, with a civil hospital, dispensary, Anglo-vernacular school, subordinate jail, postal and telegraph offices, travellers' bungalow, and *dharmsála*. It possesses, besides, a Freemasons' Lodge. Municipal revenue (1883–84), £14,812; incidence of taxation, 5s. 2½d. per head. The town is well drained and clean. In 1834 the population was estimated at only 4000; in 1872 it had risen to 13,318; and in 1881 to 27,389, namely, males 17,151, and females 10,238. Muhammadans number 14,118; Hindus, 6654; Christians, 383; Párs'ís, 50; and 'others,' 6184.

The trade of Sukkur, both local and transit, is considerable, but no trustworthy details are available. Statistics of the traffic on the Indus appear to have been regularly kept from 1855–56 to 1861–62, by an officer of the late Indian Navy. In 1855–56, 600 boats proceeding up river with a total tonnage of 7750; and in 1861–62, 1232 with a tonnage of 20,232, discharged at Sukkur port. In the same years, 629 and 1714 boats left Sukkur with cargoes amounting to 8000 and 16,317 tons respectively. No returns seem to have been made between 1861–62 and 1865–66, but from the latter date they were carried down to 1867–68, after which they were discontinued altogether. In 1867–68, 293 boats, with a tonnage of 5171, discharged at Sukkur; and 6167, with a tonnage of 96,362, proceeded from Sukkur. In 1855–56, the number of vessels proceeding down river and discharging at Sukkur was 2210, with a tonnage of 33,125; in 1861–62, 479, with a tonnage of 7694; and in 1867–68, 1580, with a tonnage of 24,739. In 1855–56 and in 1861–62, the number of vessels proceeding down stream from Sukkur was 2210 and 940, with a tonnage of 33,125 and 18,178 respectively; in 1867–68, the number of vessels rose to 6860, with a total tonnage of 114,358. The downward exports comprise silk, country cloth, raw cotton, wool, opium, saltpetre, sugar, dyes, and brass utensils. The upward exports include piece-goods, metals, wines and spirits, and country produce. There is a large local trade between Sukkur and Shikárpur. The town possesses no special manufacturing industries.

Old Sukkur seems to be a place of no great antiquity, though it contains the ruins of numerous tombs and mosques. Among the former is the tomb of Sháh Khair-ud-dín Sháh, which is said to have been erected about 1758 A.D. New Sukkur owes its existence to the stationing of European troops here in 1839, at the time when Bukkur fort was made over to the British; and it was rapidly converted into a prosperous and busy town. In 1845, after a fatal epidemic of fever among the garrison, New Sukkur was abandoned as a station for European troops;

but it promises to be of still greater importance than before, as the centre of railway communication with Karáchí, Múltán, and Kandahár. Little is known of Old Sukkur in the days of Afghán rule; but it is believed to have been ceded to the Khairpur Mírs some time between the years 1809 and 1824. In 1833 it was the scene of a conflict between Sháh Shuja-ul-Mulk, the dethroned Duráni sovereign, and the Talpur Mírs, the latter being defeated. In 1842, Old Sukkur, together with Karáchí (Kurrachee), Tatta, and Rohri, was yielded to the British in perpetuity.

Suláimán Hills.—Mountain range in Afghánistán and the Punjab, forming the historical boundary of India on the west. They stretch from lat. 31° 35′ 39″ to 31° 40′ 59″ N., and from long. 69° 58′ 39″ to 70° 0′ 45″ E., thus bordering the whole Deraját in Bannu, Dera Ismail Khán, and Dera Ghází Khán Districts. The highest peak, the Takht-i-Suláimán, nearly due west of Dera Ismail Khán town, has two summits, respectively 11,295 and 11,070 feet above sea-level. Throughout, the range presents a comparatively straight line to the British frontier. The outer hills consist of several parallel ranges, having a direction due north and south. Beyond them rises the main chain, sloping away gradually on the Afghán side toward the valley of Kandahár. The Suláimáns are generally rocky and precipitous, completely bare of trees upon their sides, and wanting in water among the ravines at their feet. Numerous passes thread the range, held by independent tribes in alliance with the British Government. The Kuram forms almost the only river of any importance, taking its rise among their dry summits. Length, from north to south, about 350 miles.

The following description is condensed from Colonel MacGregor's account. The Suláimán range is thrown off to the south from the Allah-koh ridge between Kábul and Ghazní, and proceeding southwards without a break, forms the system of mountains of Eastern Afghánistán and Balúchistán. The whole of the eastern slopes of the range drain into the Indus; while to the west, the drainage runs either into the Helmand, or is lost in the desert between Persia and Balúchistán. On the south, the lower slopes discharge their drainage directly into the sea. The principal spurs thrown off from the main range on the west are a range dividing Zurmat from Kataváz, and one which leaves the parent ridge south of Mount Chapar, and runs nearly west to the Sar-i-Bolán, which is thus a continuation of the Suláimán range. On the eastern or Indian side, the main offshoots are—a range dividing the drainage of the Kuram from the Khost valley; a spur dividing Dáwar from Khost, which ends in British territory in Bannu District; the Wazíri range in its many branches; and the Surkh-koh or Kála-koh, over which runs the Sakhi Sarwár Pass.

Sulebháve. — Town in Bijápur District, Bombay Presidency.

Population (1881) 5990, namely, Hindus, 5346; Muhammadans, 579; and Jains, 65.

Sulekere (lit. '*Courtesan's Tank*,' so called from a local legend).—Lake in the east of Shimoga District, Mysore State; artificially formed in ancient times by damming up the waters of the Haridra river, a tributary of the Tungábhadrá. Its margin is about 40 miles in circumference; and, next to the Cumbum (Kambham) tank in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, it is probably the finest reservoir in Southern India. It receives the drainage of 20 square miles, and is capable of irrigating 20,000 acres. In modern times, the work has been greatly neglected; but its embankment is still firm and uninjured, and the sluices have recently been repaired.

Sullivan's Island.—An island in the Mergui Archipelago, attached to Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. Lat. 10° 40′ to 11° N., and long. 97° 58′ to 98° E. Extreme length, 17 miles; extreme breadth, 6 miles. A favourite haunt of the Selung tribe.

Sultánganj.—Considerable village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated close to the banks of the Ganges, near the railway station of the same name. Lat. 25° 14′ 45″ N., long. 86° 47′ 6″ E. Population (1881) 4147, namely, 2061 males and 2086 females. The river-borne trade and the railway have largely contributed to its commercial importance. Sultánganj is conspicuous for two great rocks of granite, one of which, on the river bank, is crowned by a Musalmán mosque. The second and larger one is occupied by a temple of Ghaibnáth Siva, and is a place of great holiness in the eyes of Hindus. The river here strikes against a cliff of stone, and a spot where this occurs is always believed to be the scene of the loves of the river nymph and the god Siva. In the rainy season the rock is isolated, and the stream rushes past with great violence. During the fair weather, many of the Hindus who live in the neighbourhood receive instruction at the temple. Few Hindus of any position pass the place without making offerings to the idol.

Sultánpur.—British District in the Rái Bareli Division or Commissionership of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; lying between 26° and 26° 39′ N. lat., and between 81° 36′ and 82° 44′ E. long. Area, 1707 square miles. Population (1881) 957,912 souls. Bounded on the north by Faizábád (Fyzábád), on the east by Jaunpur, on the south by Partábgarh, and on the west by Rái Bareli. Extreme length of District, 80 miles; greatest breadth, 38 miles. The administrative head-quarters are at SULTANPUR TOWN.

Changes in Jurisdiction.—The District, as at present constituted, differs entirely from that which existed prior to 1870. The old District comprised the 12 *parganás* of Inhauna, Jagdíspur, Subeha, Rokhá Jais,

Sirnrauta, Gaura Jámun, Mohanganj, Amethi, Isauli, Tappa Asl, Sultánpur, and Chándá, with a total area of 1570 square miles, and a population, in 1869, of 930,023 souls. In the redistribution of Oudh Districts which took place in 1869–70, four *parganás*—viz. Inhauna, Rokhá Jais, Simrauta, and Mohanganj—were separated from Sultánpur and attached to Rái Bareli, while Subeha *parganá* was transferred to Bara Banki. On the other hand, the *parganás* of Isauli, Baraunsa, Aldemau, and a part of Surharpur, which formerly belonged to Faizábád, were transferred to Sultánpur, altering the total area to 1707 square miles, and the population to 957,912.

Physical Aspects.—With the exception of a gradual and scarcely perceptible slope from north-west to south-east, the surface of the country is generally level, being broken only by ravines in the neighbourhood of the rivers by which its drainage is effected. The scenery is of a varied character. Many spots on the Gúmti are exceedingly pretty; but, for the most part, the country along both banks of that river is a dreary, black, and ravine-cut tract, occasionally relieved by mango groves. The centre of the District, along the high-road from Lucknow to Jaunpur, consists of highly-cultivated and well-wooded villages; while in the south, in strong contrast to this fertile tract, are widespread arid plains, and swampy *jhíls* and marshes.

The principal river is the Gúmti, which enters Sultánpur from Bara Banki at its north-western corner, and after flowing an exceedingly tortuous south-easterly course through the centre of the District, passes into Jaunpur District in the North-Western Provinces. During the dry months the breadth of the channel is about 200 feet, and its depth about 12 or 13 feet, with a current of about 2 miles an hour, and a discharge of about 5000 cubic feet per second. During seasons of flood, however, its depth occasionally rises to upwards of 48 feet, with a current of 4 miles an hour, and a discharge, at Sultánpur town, of upwards of 100,000 cubic feet per second. Of minor streams, the most important are the Kándu, Píli, Tengha, and Nandhia. The Kándu takes its rise in a morass near Ráipur village. In the upper or western portion of its course it is a shallow streamlet, known as the Naiya. Near Jagdíspur it becomes a small river, with rugged banks, and is then called the Kándu, under which name it finally empties itself into the Gúmti. The Píli *nadí* becomes in the rains a considerable stream, but at other times consists of a string of disconnected *jhíls* and swamps, which cover a great portion of the south of Chándá *parganá*. The Tengha, so called from a village of the same name in *parganá* Amethi, discharges itself into the Chamrauri, a tributary of the Sái. The Nandhia *nadí* first appears near the village of that name in *parganá* Tappa Asl, and ultimately unites with the Tengha at the point where that stream falls into the Cham-

rauri. Both the Tengha and the Nandhia are streams of some importance, as their channels are deep, though narrow, and form the outlet for the superfluous water of extensive series of *jhíls*. One of these series, known as *jhíl* Lodhai, commences near the village of Bhalgáon, and stretches through Goawán to Náráyan, a distance of 13 miles.

There is now no forest-covered tract in Sultánpur District. But sixty years ago a wide expanse of jungle is said to have extended from the residence of the Rájá of Amethi quite up to the Lucknow road; and the Bhadaiyán jungle, which after the Mutiny occupied upwards of a thousand acres, is said to have been the remains of an extensive forest, patches of which are still to be found in villages far removed from Bhadaiyán. The only tree-covered tracts of spontaneous growth at the present day are the stunted *dhák* jungles, which are only of use for fuel. A substitute for forest timber exists in the large and noble groves with which the District is plentifully studded. The trees most in favour for groves are the mango, *jamún*, and *mahuá*. The *mahuá* is also often found alone, or in clumps of two or three, in open spots; as also are the *bel*, *káitha*, and *nim*. Grand old solitary trees of immense magnitude, the banian, the *pákar*, and the *pípal*, planted perhaps in the days of Bhar supremacy, form here and there a prominent feature in a village landscape; and the cotton-tree and the *dhák* are at one season of the year rendered conspicuous for a long distance by the brilliancy of their profusion of blossoms. The tamarind and the palm, which affect damp and feverish tracts, are comparatively rare in Sultánpur District. The *babúl* is common everywhere. The *sissu* and the *tún* are only found in the civil station, or in avenues along the roadsides. The only mineral is *kankar* limestone. Wild animals are very few in number, chiefly wolves, *nílgái*, wild hog, deer, and antelope. Small game, such as the hare, wild goose, partridge, quail, and wild duck, are common; and fish are abundant in the rivers, *jhíls*, and large tanks.

History.—At the time of the invasion of Oudh by Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, Mahmúd of Ghazní's lieutenant, Sultánpur fared for a time better than its neighbours, Jais and Jaunpur. Local traditions are unanimous in omitting all mention of Sayyid Sálár's name, and in representing the Bhars to have remained masters of this part of the country until they were expelled by Alá-ud-dín Ghori. It afterwards formed part of the Jaunpur kingdom, and on the downfall of the Lodi dynasty became incorporated with the Delhi Empire. In Akbar's reign, Sultánpur formed a *mahál* or fiscal division of the *subah* or Governorship of Oudh, with the exception of some tracts in the east and south, which were included within the *subah* of Allahábád. The District continued to be thus distributed between these two governorships for about two centuries, or until the time of the Nawáb Wazírs, when the limits of Oudh were extended by considerable transfers from Allahábád.

The only noteworthy incident in the history of the District since the British annexation, is the revolt of the troops stationed at Sultánpur cantonment during the Mutiny of 1857. Anticipating an outbreak, the European ladies and children were despatched to Allahábád on the 7th June, which they ultimately succeeded in reaching in safety, but after a good deal of rough treatment and plundering at the hands of the villagers. On the 9th June, the troops, consisting of 1 regiment of Native cavalry and 2 of infantry, rose in rebellion, and fired on their officers, killing Colonel Fisher, the commandant of the station; and Captain Gibbings, besides two civilian officers, Mr. A. Block and Mr. S. Stroyan. Upon the restoration of order, Sultánpur cantonment was strengthened by a detachment of British troops; but in 1861 it was entirely abandoned as a military station.

Population.—The population of Sultánpur District, as at present constituted, after recent transfers to and from Rái Bareli and Bara Banki, was returned in 1869 at 1,040,227. The last enumeration in 1881 returned the population at 957,912, showing a decrease of 82,315, or 7·9 per cent., in twelve years,—a decrease due to the famine of 1878, and the epidemic fever of 1879 which succeeded it.

The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 1707 square miles, with 1 town and 2459 villages; number of houses, 193,052. Total population, 957,912, namely, males 475,125, and females 482,787. Average density of population, 561 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·44; persons per town or village, 389; houses per square mile, 113; inmates per house, 4·9. Classified according to sex and age, the population consists of—under 15 years of age, boys 185,290, and girls 162,285; total children, 347,575, or 36·3 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 289,835, and females 320,502; total adults, 610,337, or 63·7 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 856,302, or 89·3 per cent.; Muhammadans, 101,524, or 10·6 per cent.; Christians, 55; Sikhs, 27; and Jains, 4. Of Hindu castes, the most important, as also the most numerous, are the Bráhmans, who number 151,607, and constitute 16·8 per cent. of the inhabitants of the District. Next, in both respects, among the higher castes come the different Kshattriya clans or Rájputs, aggregating 93,071, or 9·7 per cent. of the population. The other higher castes include Bháts, 4202; Baniyás, 23,622; and Káyasths, 12,996. Among low castes, the Chamárs are the most numerous, and are returned at 122,918, or nearly 13 per cent. of the population, followed by the Ahírs, 111,615, or 11·6 per cent. The other Hindu castes include the following:—Káchhí, 39,095; Kúrmí, 33,190; Pásí, 25,709; Kahár, 21,297; Mallah, 20,494; Gadária, 20,095; Kori, 17,790; Telí, 16,563;

Nái, 15,637; Kalwár, 14,664; Bhurjí, 14,577; Kumbhar, 14,141; Dhobí, 13,417; Barhai, 11,810; Lohár, 11,743; Lonia, 7703; Lodh, 5333; Tamúlí, 4575; and Sonár, 3697. Of the Muhammadans, who form less than eleven per cent. of the entire population, about one-fourth are Sayyids, Shaikhs, Mughals, or Patháns; one-sixth is composed of converts from the principal Rájput clans, and Gújars, while the remainder comprise the lower orders of Musalmáns.

The principal shrines and fairs in the District are:—Sítákund, on the right bank of the Gúmti, immediately below the civil station, is celebrated as the spot where Sítá is said to have bathed before accompanying her husband Ráma into his self-imposed exile. In commemoration of this event, a bathing fair is held twice a year in the months of Jaistha and Kártik, attended by 15,000 or 20,000 persons. No trade is carried on beyond the sale of sweetmeats. Dhopáp, in the village of Rájápati, on the Gúmti, is a sacred, sin-cleansing part of the river. It was here that Ráma, on his return from the Lanka war, is said to have washed away the sin of having killed a Bráhman, in the person of Rávana, the Demon king of Ceylon. Fairs are held here similar to those at Sítákund.

Urban and Rural Population.—The population of Sultánpur District is entirely rural, the only place with a population exceeding five thousand being the town and civil station of SULTANPUR (population in 1881, 9374), which is also the sole municipality. In some parts of the District, as in Mohanganj in the west, the villages are large, and situated at a distance from each other, the unsettled state of the country under native rule having induced the inhabitants to band themselves together for mutual protection. Farther east, on the other hand, villages are small and hamlets abound; while in Chándá in the extreme south-east, solitary houses are found pretty thickly scattered over the *parganá*. Of the 2459 villages and hamlets, 948 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 902 between two hundred and five hundred; 443 between five hundred and a thousand; 145 between one thousand and two thousand; 18 between two thousand and three thousand; and 3 between three thousand and five thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the Census Report divides the male population into the following six classes:—(1) Professional and official class, 3315; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 598; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 5570; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 195,796; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 33,773; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 236,073.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 1707 square miles, or 1,092,428

acres, 893 square miles, or 571,795 acres, are returned as under cultivation, while 268,911 acres are returned as grazing lands or as fit for cultivation, and 251,722 acres as uncultivable waste. The main feature in the agriculture of the District is the predominance of wheat and rice, to the exclusion of other cereals, such as maize, barley, etc. The following statement shows the area under the different crops in 1883–84, including *do-fasli* land, bearing two crops. Rice, 190,625 acres; wheat, 76,051 acres; other food-grains, 379,977 acres; sugar-cane, 11,910 acres; opium, 6512 acres; oil-seeds, 1370 acres; indigo, 831 acres; tobacco, 713 acres; fibres, 576 acres; cotton, 305 acres; and vegetables, 3189 acres. Wheat, pulses, and opium form the principal *rabí* or spring crops; and rice, sugar-cane, tobacco, oil-seeds, and indigo, the chief *kharíf* or autumn crops.

The average price for different food-grains during the ten years ending 1882 is returned as follows:—Common unhusked rice, 35 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 2d. per cwt.; common husked rice, 15 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. per cwt.; best husked rice, 11 *sers* per rupee, or 10s. 2d. per cwt.; wheat, 14 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. per cwt.; barley, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; *joár*, 31 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 7d. per cwt.; gram, 21½ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 3d. per cwt. Unskilled labour is paid for at the rate of a fraction under 3d. per day, and skilled labour at from 6d. to 7d. The agricultural stock, etc., of the District in 1883–84 is returned as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 297,757; horses, 1605; ponies, 607; donkeys, 2632; sheep and goats, 101,175; pigs, 44,622; carts, 315; and ploughs, 96,612.

In respect to the character of the landed tenures, Sultánpur is mainly a *tálukdárí* District, owned by Bachgoti and Rájkumar Rájputs in the east, by Amethia Rájputs in the centre, and by Kanhpuria Rájputs in the west. Out of 2526 villages, 1363 are returned as being held under *tálukdárí*, 304 under *zamíndárí*, 542 under *pattidárí*, and 317 under *bháyáchára* tenure. The total male adult agricultural population in 1881 was returned at 194,612, made up as follows:—Landholders, 26,781; estate officer, 1; cultivators, 135,631; and agricultural labourers, 32,199. Average cultivated area to each male agriculturist, 2·94 acres. The population entirely dependent on the soil, however, numbered 680,719, or 71·06 per cent. of the total population of the District. Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied upon land, £125,101, or an average of 4s. 5¼d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £210,798, or an average of 7s. 4½d. per cultivated acre.

Means of Communication, etc.—The principal road by which the District is intersected is the imperial high-road from Faizábád (Fyzábád) to Allahábád. It enters the District from the north, passes through the civil station, and, running nearly due south, crosses into Partábgarh

District. It is metalled and bridged throughout. The other main lines of road, which, although unmetalled, are bridged where necessary, are as follows:—(1) The Lucknow and Jaunpur road, which enters the District 2 miles east of Haidargarh, and leaves it 2 miles east of Chándá, —total length within Sultánpur, 70 miles, in the course of which it passes through Nihalgarh and Saráyan; it passes the civil station 2 miles to the south, but is connected with it by three separate lines: (2) the Sultánpur and Rái Bareli road: and (3) the Faizábád and Rái Bareli road. These roads constitute the local trunk lines, and throw out lateral branches in various directions. The branch lines have a total length of upwards of 100 miles. Besides the above there are numerous village tracks, which are at present only practicable for country carts, at once strong and lightly laden. Total length of made roads of all classes, 373¾ miles. The Gúmti, although not much used for passenger traffic, affords a valuable highway for commerce, being navigable here by cargo boats of from 30 to 35 tons burden. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway cuts across a corner of the District for 6¼ miles in the extreme east.

Trade and Commerce, Manufactures, etc.—The principal articles of trade are grain, cotton, molasses, and native cloth. A considerable traffic within the District is also carried on in cattle. Manufactures are quite unimportant. Coarse cotton cloth is woven by the Kori and Juláha castes. At Bandhuá, brass and bell-metal vessels are manufactured, and other rough metal work is carried on. Sugar and indigo are made on a very small scale in *parganá* Chándá. Under native rule, the manufacture of salt and saltpetre was largely carried on, but it has now been discontinued. All villages of any consequence have their own *bázárs*, either permanent or periodical. The latter are often nothing more than open-air markets, held on certain fixed days of the week; the former are sometimes large walled enclosures, bisected by a road, and lined with shops on either side. These local *bázárs* are small but important centres of commerce. Every village may be said to be affiliated to one of them, and each of them in turn is connected in its dealings with one or more of the larger emporia. The principal *bázárs* are as follows:—(1) Perkinsganj, at the civil station, founded shortly after the re-occupation of Oudh by Colonel Perkins, Deputy Commissioner. One of the newest, it is also one of the most flourishing markets in the District. A large trade is carried on here, and goods are brought for sale from a great distance. Its rapid growth has been favoured by the convenient nature of its position. It is in close proximity to the District court-house, the *sadr tahsíl*, and the *thánás*; and is hence much frequented by persons whose business takes them to those places. It is also little more than half a mile from the right bank of the Gúmti, so that if trade be slack here, unsold

goods can be easily placed in boats and carried by water to Jaunpur. (2) Sukul *bázár*, in the village of Mawayya Rahmatgarh, in *parganá* Jagdíspur, founded about fifty years ago by some members of a well-to-do Sukul (Bráhman) family. It shares with Perkinsganj the advantage of being near the Gúmti. (3) Gauriganj, called after the deity of that name, and founded by Rájá Mádhu Singh of Amethi about twenty-five years ago. It is situated in the village of Rájarh a few miles east of Jáis. (4) Bandhuá, an old *bázár* on the Lucknow and Jaunpur road, close to Hasanpur. (5) Alíganj, in the village of Unchgáon, *parganá* Sultánpur, founded in 1795 by the *tálukdár* of Maniárpur.

Administration.—The total revenue, imperial and local, of Sultánpur District in 1883–84 amounted to £130,806, of which £112,690 was derived from the land-tax. The other principal items of revenue are stamps, £8897, and excise, £9152. The expenditure in the same year upon officials and police of all kinds was £17,170. The District contains 13 civil and revenue, and 10 magisterial courts. For the protection of person and property, there is a regular District and town police force of 466 officers and men, besides a village watch of 2902 men. The daily average number of prisoners in jail during 1883 was 394.

In March 1884, Sultánpur District contained in all 101 Government and inspected schools, attended by 4233 pupils. Of these, the principal is the High School at the civil station, which affords instruction in four languages, viz. English, Urdu, Hindi, and Persian, and teaches up to the standard of the entrance examination of the Calcutta University. Next in importance comes the town school of Jagdíspur. The Census of 1881 returned 3025 boys and 38 girls as under instruction, besides 17,565 males and 298 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

The charitable institutions consist of 4 dispensaries, at Sultánpur, Muzaffarkhána, Kádipur, and Amethi, which in 1883 afforded gratuitous medical relief to 14,871 persons; and a poorhouse.

Climate, etc.—The climate, judged by a tropical or semi-tropical standard, is mild, temperate, and healthy. From October to June westerly winds prevail; and during the first four of these months the atmosphere is dry, cold, and bracing, more particularly after rain, of which there is almost invariably a slight fall after Christmas. Towards the end of February the wind increases in force, the temperature becomes higher, and by the end of March, if not earlier, the hot winds set in. These, however, are much less trying in Sultánpur than in the more western Districts of Oudh. They do not begin till some hours after daybreak, and seldom continue long after nightfall, while they occasionally cease for several days together. In these intervals, which become more and more frequent as the hot weather progresses, a north-east wind takes their place. About the middle of June the rainy season

commences, and, with occasional breaks of greater or less duration, continues till the end of September or beginning of October. During this period the wind scarcely ever shifts from the east. From the middle of October the weather gets cool and pleasant. The Report on the Meteorology of India for 1881 returns the average annual rainfall of Sultánpur for the previous fifteen years at 42·14 inches. The average monthly temperature at Sultánpur in May 1882 was returned at 95·6° F., in July 88·6°, and 67·10° in December.

Medical Aspects. — The chief endemic diseases of Sultánpur are fever, and it is estimated that about 10 per cent. of the population suffer every year from some form of this disease. Dysentery and diarrhœa come next, being most prevalent at the end of the rains and the commencement of the cold season. Leprosy is also common, as well as other cutaneous disorders. Cholera epidemics occurred in 1869, 1870, 1871, and 1872; but from the latter year to 1880, the disease did not appear in an epidemic form. Epidemic outbreaks, however, occurred in 1880 and in 1882. Small-pox is never wholly absent from the District. It is most fatal during the dry hot weather until the rains set in, after which the mortality decreases till it reaches a minimum, about the middle of the cold season. Vaccinators have been employed by Government in recent years, but their efforts have as yet been confined to the town of Sultánpur and the surrounding villages. Cattle-disease (rinderpest), of a very fatal type, is always more or less prevalent in the District. [For further information regarding Sultánpur, see the *Gazetteer of the Province of Oudh*, published by authority (Government Press, Allahábád, 1878), vol. iii. pp. 404–474. Also the *Settlement Report of Sultánpur District*, by A. F. Millet, Esq., C.S. (Oudh Government Press, Lucknow, 1873); the *North-Western Provinces and Oudh Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Oudh Government.]

Sultánpur.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Sultánpur District, Oudh; situated between 26° 3′ and 26° 30′ N. lat., and between 81° 46′ and 82° 22′ E. long.; bounded on the north by Bikápur *tahsíl* in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, on the east by Kadipur *tahsíl*, on the south by Ráipur *tahsíl*, and on the west by Muzaffarkhána *tahsíl*. Area, 506 square miles, of which 277 are cultivated. Population (1881) 291,767, namely, males 144,482, and females 147,285; average density, 576·6 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 251,317; Muhammadans, 40,376; Jains, 4; and 'others,' 70. Of the 832 villages, 656 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 127 between five hundred and a thousand; 48 between one thousand and five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand. Land revenue, £35,337. This Sub-division comprises the two *parganás* of Sultánpur and Sultánpur-Baraunsi. In 1885 it contained 2 civil and 2 criminal

courts, with 2 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 40 men; rural police (*chaukídárs*), 592.

Sultánpur.—*Parganá* of Sultánpur District, Oudh, stretching along the south bank of the Gúmti. A somewhat dreary and dry expanse of country, with no large towns except Sultánpur, and intersected by ravines stretching down to the Gúmti. Area, 246 square miles, of which 125 are cultivated. Population (1881) 153,481, namely, Hindus, 126,038; Muhammadans, 27,388; and Christians, 55. Number of villages, 401, of which 238 are held under *tálukdárí* and 163 under *zamíndárí* tenure. The most numerous class of the community are the Bráhmans, who number 24,790; but they only form a small proportion of the land-holding class. The Chámars come next in point of numbers with 14,823, and they also are not a land-holding class. The principal landed proprietors are the Bachgoti Rájputs, who own 94 *tálukdárí* and 96 *zamíndárí* villages. The Khánzáda Bachgotis, who are converts to Muhammadanism, own 111 *tálukdárí* and 19 *zamíndárí* villages.

Sultánpur.—Town in Sultánpur District, Oudh, and administrative head-quarters of the District; situated on the right bank of the Gúmti, in lat. 26° 15′ 50″ N., and long. 82° 7′ 10″ E. The original town, on the opposite or left bank of the river, is said to have been founded by Kusa, son of Ráma, and to have been named after him Kusapura or Kusabháwanpur. It subsequently fell into the hands of the Bhars, who retained it until it was taken from them by the Musalmáns in the 12th century A.D. About seven hundred years ago, it is said that two brothers, Sayyid Muhammad and Sayyid Alá-ud-dín, horse dealers by profession, visited Eastern Oudh, and offered some horses for sale to the Bhar chieftains of Kusabháwanpur, who seized the horses and put the two brothers to death. This came to the ears of Alá-ud-dín Ghori, who determined to punish such an outrage upon the descendants of the prophet. Gathering a mighty host, therefore, he set out for Kusabháwanpur, and at length arrived and pitched his tents in Karaundi, then a dense jungle near the devoted town, on the opposite side of the river. Here he remained encamped for a year without gaining any advantage over the besieged; until, feigning to be weary of the fruitless contest, and anxious only to obtain an unmolested retreat, he had some hundreds of palanquins richly fitted up, and sent them as a peace-offering to the Bhars, pretending that they were filled with presents. The cupidity of the Bhars overcame their caution, and they received the pretended gifts within their walls. At a given signal, the palanquins were thrown open, and there sprang out a crowd of armed warriors, who, thus taking their enemies unprepared, speedily put them to the sword. Kusabháwanpur was reduced to ashes, and a new town called Sultánpur, after the title of the victor, rose upon its ruins.

Sultánpur is often mentioned by Muhammadan chroniclers; but it does not seem to have been a place of great note, although at one time a flourishing little town, with several *mahallas* or wards. During the earlier half of the present century, a military station or cantonment was established by the native Government on the opposite bank of the river, and from this time the old town began to decline. In 1839 it was described as having no manufacture or trade, and with a population of only 1500. The place was finally razed to the ground during the military operations connected with the re-occupation of the Province after the Mutiny, in consequence of the inhabitants having been concerned in the murder of two British civilians at the time of the outbreak. The military cantonment was then occupied by a regiment of Native cavalry, and two of Native infantry, who rose in mutiny on the 9th June 1857, and, after firing on and murdering two of their officers, sacked the station, and proceeded to join the main body of the rebels. On the re-occupation of the Province, a detachment of European troops was stationed here for a time; but in 1861, all the troops, British and Native, were withdrawn, and the place ceased to be a military cantonment.

The present town and civil station occupies the site of the old cantonments, and contained a population in 1881 of 9374, namely, Hindus, 6156; Muhammadans, 3148; Christians, 55; and 'others,' 15. Municipal income (1883–84), £861, of which £502 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1d. per head. The town has been much improved of late years; the unsightliness of the bleak ravines leading down to the river is hidden by the foliage of acacia trees, and the roads are lined on either side with rows of mango and other shade-giving trees. A fine public garden, more than 10 acres in extent, has also been laid out. The principal public buildings are the court-houses, jail, police station, Government schools, charitable dispensary, and church.

Sultánpur. — Town in Kúlu *tahsíl*, Kángra District, Punjab; situated on the right bank of the Beas (Biás), in lat. 31° 58′ N., and long. 77° 7′ E., at an elevation of 4092 feet above sea-level. Population (1881) 3349. Successively the seat of administration under the Kúlu Rájás, the Sikhs, and until recently, the British. The head-quarters of the Sub-division are now, however, at Nagar, higher up the Beas. Sultánpur is perched upon a natural eminence, and was once surrounded by a wall, so that it must have formerly been a place of some strength. Only two gateways now remain of the ancient fortifications. Large rambling palace, with sloping slate roof and walls of hewn stone. North of the town is a suburb inhabited by Láhulis, who seek a refuge in Sultánpur from the severity of their own winter. Many shops are owned by traders from Kángra, Láhul, and Ládákh. Con-

siderable transit trade between the plains and Central Asia, *viâ* Leh; estimated value in 1862, £23,000, risen in 1882 to £80,000. Important fair every year in October, when 80 minor divinities come up to pay their respects at the shrine of Raghunáth Jí, the orthodox superior deity. *Tahsíl*, police station, post-office, dispensary, *sarái* (native rest-house), middle school.

Sultánpur.—Village in Gurgáon District, Punjab. In this and neighbouring villages situated on the borders of the Najafgarh *jhíl*, salt is manufactured from brine in wells, evaporated by solar heat in shallow pans. The total area of the saline region is 1565 acres, the number of wells 330, and the number of pans 3799. The quantity manufactured at all the wells in 1871–72 was 456,411 *maunds*, the greater portion of which was consumed in Delhi. Sultánpur salt also finds a market in the Upper Dóáb, Rohilkhand, the eastern Punjab, and even in Oudh and Mírzápur. The works could turn out, if necessary, an estimated quantity of 50,000 tons annually. The great drawback has hitherto consisted in the want of efficient transport, now afforded by the Rájputána State Railway. The competition of the Sámbhar Lake salt has, however, affected the trade injuriously, and is likely to do so still more every year. The saline tract happens to be near the Najafgarh *jhíl*, but there is no connection between the *jhíl* and the salt manufactured.

Sultánpur.—Town in Nakúr *tahsíl*, Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated 9 miles north-west of Saháranpur town. Population (1881) 3188. Founded by Sultán Bahlol Lodi about 1450 A.D. Noted for the number and wealth of its Jain or Sarangi merchants, who carry on a considerable trade in sugar and salt with the Punjab. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Sultánpur. — Village in Bánsdih *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 56′ 30″ N., and long 84° 15′ 28″ E., 4 miles north of Bánsdih town and 1 mile south of the Gogra. Population (1881) 2394. As in most other villages along the banks of the Gogra, Sultánpur contains a considerable area of shifting alluvial land (*diárá*), which is the cause of much litigation.

Sultánpur. — Town in Kapúrthala State, Punjab. Population (1881) 8217, namely, Muhammadans, 5350; Hindus, 2698; Sikhs, 133; and Jains, 36.

Sumdirí.—River in the north of Lakhimpur District, Assam, which rises far up amid the Daphlá Hills, and, flowing south, ultimately falls into the Subansirí, a tributary of the Brahmaputra. Among its own affluents, within British territory, are the Gariáján, Dhol, and Ghágar.

Sumerpur.—Town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces

standing on the open plain, in lat. 25° 50′ N., and long. 80° 12′ 5″ E., 9 miles south-east of Hamírpur town. Population (1881) 5222, namely, Hindus 4833, and Muhammadans 389. Anciently a place of some importance, as proved by the numerous mounds and ruins in the town itself and its vicinity. Pottery and coins have been found among the remains. Two ruined forts, attributed by tradition to a Nawáb of Farukhábád, and to Khamán Singh, a Bundela chief in the middle of the last century. Police station, *tahsíli* school.

Sumesar (*Sumeswar*).—Hill range in Champáran District, Bengal, lying between 27° 20′ and 27° 30′ N. lat., and between 84° 5′ and 84° 39′ E. long. The frontier line with Nepál runs along the top of these hills, from the Kúdí *nadí* to the source of the Panchnad river. The total length of the chain is about 46 miles, the highest point being 2270 feet high, and the average height 1500 feet. In some places the range is almost inaccessible. The character of the surface varies, being rocky and barren in some places, while in others it is thickly studded with trees or covered with grass. At the eastern extremity, where the Kúdí *nadí* divides the range, is situated the pass leading into Deoghát in Nepál, through which the British army successfully marched in 1814–15. The other principal passes are the Sumesar, Kápan, and Harlan Harha.

Sumla (*Salma*).—Petty State in the Jhálawár division of Káthiáwar, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SAMLA.

Sumpter (*Sampthar*). — Native State in Bundelkhand, Central India.—*See* SAMTHAR.

Sunam. — Town in Karmgarh *tahsíl* of Patiála State, Punjab. Population (1881) 12,223, namely, males 6379, and females 5844. Hindus, 5651; Muhammadans, 5316; Sikhs, 835; and Jains, 421.

Sunámganj.—Town in Sylhet District, Assam.—*See* SONAMGANJ.

Sunapur.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SONAPUR.

Sunda.—Town in North Kánara District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SONDA.

Sundarapándiam (called after a Pándyan king, perhaps the 'Sender Bandi' of Marco Polo).—Agricultural village in Srivillipátur *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 36′ 30″ N., long. 77° 44′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 4846, occupying 1148 houses. Hindus number 4713; Muhammadans, 131; and Christians, 2.

Sundarbans, The.—A vast tract of forest and swamp, forming the southernmost portion of the Gangetic Delta, Bengal; extends along the sea-face of the Bay of Bengal, from the estuary of the Húglí to that of the Meghná. Lat. 21° 30′ 40″ to 22° 37′ 30″ N., long. 88° 4′ 30″ to 91° 14′ E. The Sundarbans occupy an area of 7532 square miles; their extreme length along the coast is about 165 miles, and

their greatest breadth from north to south about 81 miles. They are bounded on the north by the permanently settled lands of the Districts of the Twenty-four Parganás, Khulná, and Bákarganj; on the west and east by the estuaries of the Húglí and the Meghná respectively; and on the south by the Bay of Bengal. No information exists showing the separate population of the Sundarbans, this tract being included in the Census Report of 1881 with the adjoining Districts. The Sundarbans are administered by a special Commissioner.

Physical Aspects.—The country is one vast alluvial plain, where the continual process of land-making has not yet ceased. It abounds in morasses and swamps, now gradually filling up, and is intersected by large rivers and estuaries running from north to south. These are connected with each other by an intricate series of branches, and the latter in their turn by innumerable smaller channels; so that the whole tract is a tangled network of streams, rivers, and watercourses, enclosing a large number of islands of various shapes and sizes. It is bordered by a fringe of reclaimed land situated along the northern boundary, except in Bákarganj, where some of the clearings extend almost down to the sea. These reclaimed tracts are entirely devoted to rice cultivation. There are no 'villages' in the ordinary acceptation of the word; and the cultivators live far apart in little hamlets.

The unreclaimed portion of the Sundarbans near the sea consists of impenetrable jungle and thick underwood traversed by gloomy-looking watercourses. This thick jungle forms an admirable protection against the storm-waves which sometimes accompany cyclones in the Bay of Bengal. A list of the principal trees of the Sundarbans forests will be found in *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. i. pp. 304–309. The commonest of them is the *sundrí* (Heritiera littoralis), which abounds throughout the tract, and yields a good hard wood, used for building purposes, and for making carriage shafts, furniture, and boats. Most of the boats in the Sundarbans, and in the Districts of the Twenty-four Parganás, Khulná, Jessor, and Bákarganj, are made, wholly or in part, of this tree. A total area of 1581 square miles in the Sundarbans has been demarcated as 'reserved forests;' and a considerable proportion of the remaining area has also been placed under the Forest Department as 'protected forests.' In 1877–78, the total forest revenue received was £17,400, as against charges amounting to only £3345. The aggregate amount of firewood and timber removed under cognisance of the officials was 9,103,250 *maunds*, on which toll was levied at the rate of 1 *ánná* (1½d.) per *maund* for *sundrí* timber, and 1 *pice* (1½ farthing) per *maund* for all other wood.

The physical features vary considerably in different portions of the Sundarbans, and the whole tract may be divided, according to these

variations, into three sections—(1) a western part, including the country lying between the Húglí and the Jamuná and Kalindí rivers; (2) a central part, between the Jamuná and the Baleswar; and (3) the eastern portion, extending from the Baleswar to the Meghná. The first and the last of these sections lie comparatively high, and the ground slopes downwards towards the central tract, which is low and swampy. In the western division, the water of the streams is, for the most part, salt; and the cultivated lands are surrounded by high embankments, and dotted over with scattered clusters of huts. In the central marshy parts there are few habitations, the cultivators often living away from their fields; the water is brackish, and the embankments which surround the fields are lower than in the west. In the eastern portion, the lands being high, and the river water comparatively fresh, embankments are not necessary for the protection of the crops; the soil, too, is richer than in the western and central portions; and every well-to do peasant has a substantial homestead and tank, surrounded by palms and other trees.

It is impossible to give an account of the river system of the Sundarbans which shall be at once concise and intelligible. The reader who desires special information regarding any of the estuaries of the Gangetic Delta should consult Horsburgh's *Sailing Directions*.[1] We must content ourselves with giving here the principal arms of the sea: they are, proceeding from west to east, the Húglí, Sattarmukhí, Jámirá Matlá, Bángáduní, Guásubá, Ráimangal, Málanchá, Bára Pángá, Marjátá or Kágá, Pasar, Bángará, Haringhátá or Báleswar, Rabnábád channel, and the Meghná river.

The wild animals found in the Sundarbans are tigers (which cause much havoc, often seriously interfering with the work of reclamation), leopards, rhinoceros, buffaloes, hogs, wild cats, deer of several species, porcupines, otters, monkeys, etc. Fish abound; and the python, cobra, and many other kinds of snake are found. Among the birds of the Sundarbans are adjutants, vultures, pelicans, kites, hawks, owls, doves, green pigeons, parrots, parroquets, jungle-fowl, kingfishers, jays, orioles, snipe, teal, pheasants, plover, partridges, and every description of water-fowl.

History, etc.—The name 'Sundarban' has been variously explained, some deriving it from *sundar*, beautiful, and *ban*, forest; others from the *sundrí*, which is, as already stated, the commonest tree in the jungles. *Sundrí* simply means 'beautiful,' but the word has been connected by some writers with *sindur*, 'vermilion,' the wood being of a reddish colour. The name may also be a corruption of *Samudraban*, 'the forest near the sea,' the same name being given to similar lands in

[1] London: 1852. Quoted, so far as the Sundarbans rivers are concerned, in vol. i. of *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, pp. 294–299.

Chittagong. A much less probable derivation traces the word to Chandrawíp, the name of an old *zamíndárí parganá*; while, according to another but altogether unlikely etymology, the tract took its name from the Chandabhandas, or Shandabhandas, a tribe of salt-makers. The extension of the name to the whole coast is modern.

It has long been disputed whether the Sundarbans were formerly inhabited. Remains of houses and embankments have been found in isolated parts of the jungle, showing that at any rate there were occasional settlers in those parts. But no evidence has yet been obtained to prove that the tract south of the present limit of cultivation was, as has often been asserted, at one time studded with towns or villages. It seems, on the contrary, probable that the northern limit of the Sundarbans has remained for about 400 years where it is at present. The question will be found discussed at some length in *The Statistical Account of Bengal* (vol. i. pp. 320, 321, 380–385). A very remarkable depression of the surface appears to have taken place at some not very distant period, large *sundrí* trees having been found (not only in the Sundarbans, but as far north as Sialdah, a suburb of Calcutta) standing as they grew, at depths varying from 10 to 30 feet below the present level of the country. Various attempts have been made to account for this circumstance, but it has not yet been satisfactorily explained.

Reclamation of the Sundarbans.—The earliest historical attempt to reclaim the Sundarbans was made by Khán Jahán, a Muhammadan chief, who died in 1459 A.D., and whose clearings at Bágherhát in Jessor remain to this day (*see* JESSOR). The more recent attempts date from 1782, when Mr. Henckell, the first English judge and magistrate of Jessor, inaugurated the system of reclamation at present existing. He began by establishing market-places at Kachná, Chándkhálí, and Henckellganj, on the line of water communication between Calcutta and the eastern Districts. Henckellganj, named after its founder by his native agent, appears as Hingulgunge on the Survey maps. All these places were at that time in the forest, and Mr. Henckell's first step was to make clearings of the jungle; that done, the lands immediately around the clearings were gradually brought under cultivation. In 1784, Mr. Henckell submitted a scheme for the reclamation of the Sundarbans, which met with the approval of the Board of Revenue. The principal proposal was, that grants of jungle land should be made on favourable terms to people undertaking to reclaim them; and Mr. Henckell urged the scheme on the grounds that it would yield a revenue from lands then utterly unproductive, and that by the cultivation a reserve fund of rice would be formed against seasons of drought, the crops in the Sundarbans being very little dependent upon rainfall.

In 1787, Mr. Henckell was appointed 'Superintendent for culti-

vating the Sundarbans,' and already at that time 7000 acres were under cultivation. In the following year, however, disputes arose with the *zamíndárs* who possessed lands adjoining the Sundarbans grants; and as the *zamíndárs* not only claimed a right to lands cultivated by holders of these grants, but enforced their claims, the number of grants began to fall off rapidly. Mr. Henckell expressed a conviction that if the boundaries of the lands held by the neighbouring *zamíndárs* were only settled, the number of grants would at once increase again; but the Board of Revenue had grown lukewarm about the whole scheme, and in 1790 practically abandoned it. Several of the old grants forthwith relapsed into jungle.

In 1807, however, applications for grants, which had for some time previously ceased, began to come in again; and since that time, reclamation steadily progressed, until, in 1872, the Commissioner of the Sundarbans estimated the total area under cultivation at 695,733 acres, or 1087 square miles, of which 493,907 acres, or two-thirds of the whole, were reclaimed between 1830 and 1872. The number of estates in the latter year was 431, paying a land revenue of £41,757. Since 1872, however, there has been a retrogression in the matter of land reclamation in the Sundarbans; and ten years later, in 1882, the total reclaimed area was returned at 786 square miles, comprising 413 estates paying a revenue of £41,684. The cause of this decrease was partly owing to injuries caused by the cyclone of 1876 in the Bákarganj Sundarbans; and partly to the abandonment of their clearances by several lessees, who, after prosecuting their operations for a time, allowed the land to revert into forest, when the Government resumed possession. New waste land rules were promulgated in 1879, and several fresh leases have been taken under them.

Population.—No separate Census has ever been taken of the population of the Sundarbans, the inhabitants being enumerated in the TWENTY-FOUR PARGANAS, KHULNA, and BAKARGANJ DISTRICTS. The Hindus of the tract belong, almost without exception, to the low Súdra castes; the Muhammadans in the Bákarganj section, and in part of Eastern Jessor, are Faráizís, who are a turbulent and litigious sect, though not actively fanatical. The bulk of the population has come from the Districts in the north, but in the eastern portion (the Bákarganj Sundarbans) there is a considerable proportion of immigrant Maghs from the Arákán coast. As has already been stated, there are no towns or villages in the Sundarbans; a list of the river-side trading marts will be found below. PORT CANNING, on the Matlá river, was formerly a municipality; it was started by an English company to supply an auxiliary harbour to Calcutta, with which town it is connected by rail. The attempt failed; and, except that it contains a rice-husking mill, the place is now quite deserted.

Agriculture.—The principal staple of the Sundarbans is rice, of which two crops (*áus* or autumn, and *áman* or winter harvest) are raised in the year; the former, however, is only cultivated to a very limited extent on high lands in the eastern division. The rice of the eastern and western portions of the Sundarbans is said to be of finer quality than that grown in the central tract. The cultivators grow a few other crops—vegetables, pulses, etc.—for home consumption. Sugar-cane and *pán* are cultivated in the Bákarganj Sundarbans; and successful attempts have been made to grow jute. The price of ordinary rice varies from 3s. 9d. to 5s. 6d. a cwt. Wages are for the most part paid in kind. An account of the land tenures of the Sundarbans will be found in the article on JESSOR.

Natural Calamities.—Cyclones in the Bay of Bengal, and the storm-waves which sometimes accompany them, are the only natural calamities to which the Sundarbans are subject. The inlying tracts are to a great extent protected from the effect of these storm-waves by the belt of thick jungle near the sea, as well as by the sandhills formed along the coast by the heavy silt-laden swell which rolls shoreward during the south-west monsoon.

Trade.—There are several river-side trading villages on the border between the Sundarbans and the adjacent Districts; and as almost all the traffic between Calcutta and the East is carried on by boat routes through the Sundarbans, the periodical markets held at these places are well attended. The principal of them are—Básrá and Basantpur, on the boundary-line between the Twenty-four Parganás and the Sundarbans; and Chándkhálí and Morrellganj, within the Khulná Sundarbans. By far the most valuable export of the Sundarbans is timber and firewood. According to the registration returns for 1876–77, about 57,000 tons of timber, valued at £480,000, and 157,000 tons of firewood, valued at £110,000, were imported into Calcutta. Returns for later years are not available. Other products of the Sundarbans which form articles of trade are canes and reeds (of which baskets and mats are made), honey, beeswax, and shell lime. Large quantities of fish are caught and sent to Calcutta.

The Sundarbans Waterways are of the first importance, as being the chief means of communication between Calcutta and the East. Not only the jungle produce of the Sundarbans, but also the rice, jute, and oil-seeds of all Eastern and Northern Bengal, the tea of Assam and Cachar, as well as the salt for Eastern Bengal, are carried by one or other of these routes. Nearly all the innumerable cross channels which divide the Sundarbans into a network of islands are navigable; but traffic naturally follows certain defined routes, which are themselves liable to change, as old streams silt up and new channels open out year by year. The central mart of the Sundarbans is KHULNA town,

at the junction of the Athárabanka and the Bhairab rivers, towards which all the great boat-routes converge, and which is now connected with Calcutta by rail. Khulná is about 51 miles by water due east of Calcutta, with which it is connected by the 'Calcutta Canals,' under the supervision of the Public Works Department. The two 'Calcutta Canals' proper terminate at Samukpata and Bámanghata, 16 and 12 miles respectively from Calcutta; but the tow-path is continued as far as Khulná itself, so that boats can proceed by tracking at any state of the tide.

From Khulná, routes branch off north, east, and south. The chief northern route proceeds up the Athárabanka, the Madhumatí, and the Gorái, into the Padmá or main channel of the Ganges, and brings down the produce, not only of Northern Bengal, but also of Behar, during the dry season, when the Nadiyá rivers are closed. In recent years, the silting up of this route has led to its abandonment by steamers. The eastern route from Khulná passes down the Bhairab, and then by Barisál through Bákarganj District to Dacca. The principal southern route comes out at Morrellganj. In 1876–77, the total number of boats registered as passing Khulná was 130,313.

All these streams are tidal, and the mode of navigation is by using the ebb and flow of the tide. Part of every day's journey has to be made with the ebb, and part with the flow, so that the speed of the voyage depends entirely upon the success with which each tide is caught. A whole fleet of boats may be seen at the recognised anchorages waiting for the tide; and the District from which they come can be readily distinguished by the shape of the bow and stern. Some of these anchorages are far from any habitation of men; but all sorts of necessaries (including water) are for sale at a sort of floating *bázár*. Large boats take about five days to get from Morrellganj to Chándkhálí, and between these two places there is not a single permanent village.

The steamer-routes through the Sundarbans are not the same as those followed by country boats. The steamers, avoiding the open sea, cross the Districts of the Twenty-four Parganás and Jessor by a route lying far to the south, and hardly catch sight of a human abode until they appear at Morrellganj.

The Calcutta and South-Eastern State Railway, connecting Calcutta with PORT CANNING on the Matlá, may now, since the abandonment of that port, be regarded as merely a means of communication with the Sundarbans. Its total length is only 28 miles, and the traffic is almost entirely confined to the conveyance of firewood and a little rice to Calcutta. It was purchased by Government in 1868, by repayment of the capital that had been expended by the guaranteed company. In 1883, a branch line was opened from Sonárpur station on this railway to Diamond Harbour on the Húglí, making a further length of 27½

miles; total length, 55½ miles. In the calendar year 1883, the gross receipts were £29,538, and the gross expenses £16,238; net earnings, £13,300. The total number of passengers carried was 1,096,792, and the total quantity of goods 63,570 tons. Since 1883, the Calcutta and South-Eastern Railway has been worked in connection with the Eastern Bengal State Railway, and separate later statistics regarding it are not available.

For further information regarding the Sundarbans, the reader is referred to the articles on the TWENTY-FOUR PARGANAS, KHULNA, and BAKARGANJ.

Sundarganj. — *Trading* village and produce depôt in Rangpur *District, Bengal. Chief exports*—rice, mustard seed, and jute.

Sundeep.—*Island in the Bay of Bengal.*—*See* SANDWIP.

Sundoor. — Hills in Bellary District, Madras Presidency. — *See* SANDUR.

Sundoor.—State in Madras Presidency.—*See* SANDUR.

Sunkam.—Estate in Bastar Feudatory State, Central Provinces; comprising 98 villages. Area, 400 square miles. Population (1881) 11,737, namely, males 6077, and females 5660. The estate lies between a range of hills and the river Sabari, on the right bank of which stands Sunkam, the chief village. The forests formerly contained much excellent teak, now nearly all cut down.

Sunth. — Native State in the Political Agency of Rewa Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 394 square miles. Population (1881) 58,822 souls. It is bounded on the north by Kadána of Rewa Kántha, and the States of Dungarpur and Banswára of Mewár; on the east by the Jhálod Sub-division of the British District of the Panch Maháls; on the south by Sanjeli State under Rewa Kántha, and by the Godhra Sub-division of the Panch Maháls; and on the west by Lunáwára State.

Physical Aspects.—To the north the country is fairly flat and open, crossed by several small streams on their way north to the Mahi; to the south it is rugged, covered with long craggy lines of hills. The Mahi flows through the north-west, and the Pánam through the south-west corner of the State. Near the centre, the small stream of Chibota passes by the village of Sunth, and towards the east the Suki flows past the town of Rámpur. A line of hills, of no great height, running in a curve from the Pánam river in the south to the Mahi in the north, divides the State into two parts. Besides this principal chain, many other hills run in parallel lines from north to south. The only arable land is in the valleys, where the soil, well charged with moisture, yields without manure two crops a year of ordinary grain. Indian corn is the staple; and millet, pulse, gram, wheat, and in a few well-favoured spots sugar-cane, are also grown. The forests yield a large supply of

timber. The climate is generally unhealthy and malarious. Irrigation is carried on from tanks and wells.

Population.—The Census of 1881 returned the total population at 58,822, namely, males 29,832, and females 28,990; occupying 11,348 houses in 121 villages. Hindus number 21,920; Muhammadans, 1151; and 'others,' 35,751.

History.—The family of the chief of Sunth, Powar or Parmár by caste, claim to belong to the Mahipáwat branch of the famous Málwá dynasty, which boasts of Vikram of Ujjain in the 1st century A.D., and of Bhoj of Dhár in the 11th century A.D. The dynasty was driven from Ujjain (it is stated in the 10th century A.D.); and according to the Sunth bards, Jhálam Singh, a Powar from Mount Abú, established his power at, and gave his name to, the town of Jhálod in the Panch Maháls. There is a legend that the Emperor, hearing of the exceeding beauty of the daughter of Jhálam Singh, Ráná of Jhálod (the fifth in succession from Jhálam Singh, the founder of the dynasty at Jhálod), demanded her in marriage; and that on Jhálam Singh declining the alliance, he was attacked by the Mughal army, and was defeated and killed. His son, Ráná Sunth, fled for safety to the Sunth jungles, then under the sway of a Bhíl chief called Sutta. In the year 1255, Sunth defeated Sutta, and took possession of his capital, called Brahmapuri. He changed its name to Sunth, and established his own dynasty. According to another tradition, the Sunth family is said to have come from Dhár in Málwá, when that principality was conquered by the Muhammadans. From 1443 the State was tributary to the Ahmadábád kings, and, on their decline, received some additions of territory. In 1819, Sunth was overrun by Sindhia's troops, and would have either been annexed or laid waste, had not the British Government interfered. Through the medium of Sir John Malcolm, it was arranged that, on condition of Sindhia withdrawing his troops, Sunth should pay a tribute of £610. The control of the State vested in the British Government under this arrangement was in 1825 made over to the Rewa Kántha Political Agent.

The present chief (1884) is Maháráná Prataáb Singh, a Rájput of the Powar clan. While a minor, he was under tuition at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot. In 1881 he was duly installed with full powers. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £9000, inclusive of transit dues; and pays a tribute of £700 to the British Government. A military force is maintained of 203 men. During the minority of the chief, the affairs of the State were under the charge of the Political Agent of Rewa Kántha. The family follows the rule of primogeniture in point of succession.

Sunth.—Chief town of Sunth State, Bombay Presidency; situated about 80 miles north-east of Ahmadábád, among the ranges of hills which cross the State from north to south. Lat. 23° 36′ N., long. 73° 56′ E. Between the palace and the hills, which rise very steeply, a space enclosed by a wall with flanking towers serves as a fort, running along the crest of the hill for about 150 yards. About the centre of the wall a sally-port opens down a steep footpath to the other side of the hills. At the foot of the hill cluster a few humble buildings, the people being all dependent on the chief. The approach to the palace is up a steep causeway, leading to a gateway with two flanking towers.

Suntikopa.—Village in Coorg, Southern India; situated 10 miles from Merkára on the Mysore-Merkára road. Population (1881) 412. Head-quarters of the Parpattigár of Mudigerinad. Travellers' bungalow, post-office, and weekly market on Sundays.

Supa.—Sub-division of North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. —*See* HALIYAL.

Supa.—Village in Haliyál Sub-division, North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency; situated about 16 miles south-west of Haliyál town. Population (1881) 347. Round the village several sheltered and well-watered valleys yield rice, pepper, areca-nut, sugar-cane, gram, sesamum, and *ragi* (Eleusine corocana). The uncultivated parts are clothed with noble forests of teak, palm, and other trees. In 1799, Supa was taken by Colonel Wellesley without opposition. Office of the petty divisional officer, dispensary, police station, school, travellers' bungalow, rest-house, post-office.

Súpúl.—Sub-division of Bhágalpur District, Bengal, lying between 25° 44′ 30″ and 26° 35′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 21′ 15″ and 87° 15′ E. long. Area, 1275 square miles; number of villages, 1383; houses, 90,664. Population (1881) 600,874, namely, males 301,287, and females 299,587. Hindus number 540,576; Muhammadans, 60,232; and Christians, 66. Proportion of males in total population, 50·1 per cent.; average density of population, 471 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·08; persons per village, 435; houses per square mile, 72; persons per house, 6·6. This Sub-division comprises the 3 police circles of Súpúl, Bangáon, and Partábganj. In 1884 there was 1 magisterial and revenue court; a regular police force of 65 men; and a rural watch of 901.

Súpúl.—Town (or more properly a collection of three villages, Súpúl, Bhelahí, and Karael) in Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Head-quarters of the Sub-division of the same name. Lat. 26° 6′ 25″ N., long. 86° 38′ 11″ E. Population (1881) 2506. Almost all the dwellings are built of reeds, as, the soil being sandy, earthen walls cannot be raised. The *bázár*, which has grown in importance of late years, contains a few masonry buildings. The inhabitants consist of Baniyás, who deal in

rice, cloth, and sweetmeats; a few weavers, Bráhmans, and Káyasths, and a considerable number of Musalmáns. The suburban villages are wholly agricultural.

Surada.—*Zamíndárí táluk* of Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 103 square miles. Population (1881) 20,340, namely, males 10,253, and females 10,087; occupying 4180 houses in 217 villages. Hindus number 20,322; Muhammadans, 9; Christians, 6; and 'others,' 3.

Surada.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency; situated about 25 miles north-west of Aska, and about 23 miles south-west of Russellkonda. Population (1881) 3594, namely, Hindus, 3456; Muhammadans, 52; and Christians, 86.

Surájgarha.—Town or collection of villages in Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 15′ 25″ N., long. 86° 16′ 1″ E. Population (1872) 7935, of whom 4245 were males and 3690 females. Not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881.

Surájpur.—*Parganá* in Ram Sanehighát *tahsíl*, Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north and east by the Kalyáni river, on the south by the Gúmti, and on the west by Siddhaur *parganá*. Area, 81,645 acres, of which 37,052 acres are cultivated. Population (1881) 57,386, namely, males 28,692, and females 28,694. This *parganá* comprises 107 villages, of which 57 are held under *tálukdárí*, 43 under *zamíndárí*, and 7 under *pattidárí* tenure. Government land revenue, £9740. The chief village, founded 600 years ago, gives its name to the *parganá*. The tract was originally in possession of the Bhars, who were ousted by Patháns. During the reign of Akbar, the Pathán proprietor, Awar Khán, refused to pay revenue. A force was sent against him, under Rájá Baram Bálí, when he was defeated, and his lands made over to the victor, the ancestor of the present *tálukdár*.

Surájpur.—Village in Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the right bank of the Ganges, in lat. 26° 9′ N., and long. 80° 39′ E. Several Hindu temples and *ghát*s or bathing-steps, some in ruins, line the water's edge. *Bázár.*

Surám. — *Tahsíl* of Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the north bank of the Ganges.—*See* SORAON.

Súramangalam.—Suburb of Salem town, Madras Presidency. It contains the Salem railway station on the Madras Railway (207 miles from Madras), which was opened in 1861.

Surangi.—*Zamíndárí* and town in Ganjám District. The town is situated 12 miles east of Ichapur. Population (1881) 1994, occupying 455 houses. Hindus number 1928, and Muhammadans 66. The population, etc., of the *zamíndárí* was not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. Annual *peshkash* or fixed revenue paid by the *zamíndár*, £354.

Surat. — British District in Gujarát, Bombay Presidency, lying between 20° 15′ and 21° 28′ N. lat., and between 72° 38′ and 73° 30′ E. long.; with an area of 1662 square miles, and a population in 1881 of 614,198 souls. Surat is bounded on the north by Broach District, and the Native State of Baroda; on the east by the States of Baroda, Rájpipla, Bánsda, and Dharampur; on the south by Thána (Tanna) District and the Portuguese territory of Damán; and on the west by the Arabian Sea. A broad strip of Baroda (Gáekwár's) territory separates the north-western from the south-eastern portion of the District. The administrative head-quarters are at the city of SURAT.

Physical Aspects.—Surat District consists of a wide alluvial plain, stretching between the Dáng Hills and the coast, from the Kim river on the north to the Damángangá on the south, a distance of about 80 miles. The coast-line runs along the Arabian Sea, where it begins to narrow into the Gulf of Cambay. Small hillocks of drifted sand fringe the greater part of the shore, in some parts dry and barren, but in others watered by springs, enclosed by hedges, and covered with a thick growth of creepers and date-palms. Through the openings of the river mouths, however, the tide runs up behind the barrier of sandhills, and floods either permanently or temporarily a large area (estimated at 100,000 acres in 1876) of salt marshes. Here cultivation is extremely limited; and the people, nearly all of whom are seamen, are supported by the sale of dried fish, or engage in the local traffic up the channels of navigable creeks. Beyond spreads a central alluvial belt of highly cultivated land, with a width of about 60 miles in the north, where the important river TAPTI, carrying down a deposit of loam, forms a deep and fertile delta; but as the coast-line trends towards the south, the hills at the same time draw nearer to the coast, and so restrict the alluvial country to a breadth of little more than 15 miles on the Damán border.

The deep loam brought down by the Tápti gives a level aspect to the northern tract; but farther south, a number of small and rapid rivers have cut themselves ravine-like beds, between which lie rougher uplands with a scantier soil and poorer vegetation. In the hollows, and often on the open plain, rich deposits of black cotton-soil overlie the alluvium. The eastern border of the District consists of less fruitful lands, cut up by small torrents, and interspersed with mounds of rising ground. Here the huts of an ill-fed and almost unsettled peasantry replace the rich villages of skilled cultivators in the central lowland. On the border, this wild region passes gradually into the hills and forests of the DANGS, an unhealthy jungle which none but the black aboriginal tribes can inhabit save at special periods of the year. The Dángs have a total forest area of 900 square miles; and the whole forest area of Surat District is estimated at 958 square miles, of which about

90 square miles is directly conserved by the Forest Department. The Dángs are leased from Bhíl chiefs.

The average elevation of the District is not much more than 150 feet above sea-level. In the north are chains of flat-topped hills which reach a height of between 200 and 300 feet; south of the Tápti a series of high lands separate the plains of Surat from the plains of Khándesh. Five miles from the ruined fort of Párdi is the hill of Párnera, with an estimated elevation of 600 feet. The hills themselves consist of trap in many varieties, from basalt to soft amygdaloid, and belong orographically to the great trappean plateau of Central and Western India. Here cultivation entirely disappears, and the whole country lies under wild brushwood. It has been supposed that Surat District and the surrounding region of South-Eastern Gujarát have at no distant geological period emerged from a superincumbent ocean.

Except the Kim and the Tápti in the north, the District has no large rivers; but in the south are deep and navigable creeks, which form admirable outlets for produce, and supply a secure shelter to the smaller coasting craft. The chief rivers are the TAPTI and the Kim, on the former of which stands the city of Surat. The Kim has a course of 70 miles, after which it falls into the Gulf of Cambay. The Kim rises in the Rájpipla Hills. Its waters are useful neither for navigation nor irrigation. The Tápti gives rise to the largest alluvial lowland in the District; but its frequent floods till lately caused great loss of life and damage to property. The course of the Tápti through Surat District is 50 miles in a direct line, but 70 miles including windings. For 32 miles the river is tidal, and passes through a highly cultivated plain. The Wareli is a considerable tributary. There are ferries at Surat city and Mándvi. The Tápti enjoys a reputation for sanctity in Western India second only to that of the Narbadá. It is only navigable as far as Surat, 20 miles from its mouth. The District contains no natural lakes; but reservoirs cover a total area of 10,838 acres. With one exception, they consist of small ponds, formed by throwing horse-shoe embankments across the natural lines of drainage. The reservoir at Pálan has an area of 153 acres. On an average, in British territory each 6 acres is provided with some form of water storage.

As regards minerals, Surat is well supplied with building stone; and good material for road metal can be obtained at from 3s. to 4s. per hundred cubic feet. Iron-stone is common, but iron is not worked. Metallic sand accumulates at the mouths of rivers, and is used as the invariable blotting-paper of the writing classes.

There are no important forests in Surat, but an area of 46 square miles is being conserved at Mándvi. Over the whole District, the toddy-yielding date-palm (Phœnix sylvestris) grows more or less freely. Groves of mango trees surround many of the village sites: other trees

are—the tamarind, the banyan (Ficus bengalensis), *pípal* (Ficus religiosa), and the *babúl* (Acacia Arabica). Besides the date-palm, the *brab* (Borassus flabelliformis) is also made to yield a liquor. In 1868, about 1¼ million palm trees were estimated to be yielding toddy juice. Teak plantations have been formed at Gandeva and Goima. The Dáng forests supply teak, blackwood, and other useful varieties, but in limited quantities.

The fauna of Surat District includes a few tigers, stragglers from the jungles of Bánsda and Dharampur, besides leopards found throughout the District, bears, wild hog, wolves, hyænas, spotted deer, and antelope. Otters and grey foxes are met with. Duck, wild geese, teal, partridges, quails, and other wild-fowl abound during the cold season on the ponds and reservoirs. No fresh-water fisheries, but the rivers contain fish of large size. The sea-water fisheries employ a fleet of about 325 boats.

History.—Surat was one of the earliest portions of India brought into close relations with European countries, and its history merges almost entirely into that of its capital, long the greatest maritime city of the peninsula. Ptolemy, the Greek geographer (A.D. 150), speaks of the trade centre of Pulipula, perhaps Phulpáda, the sacred part of Surat city. The city appears to be comparatively modern in its origin; though the local Musalmán historians assert that at the commencement of the 13th century Kutab-ud-dín, after defeating Bhim Deo, Rájput king of Anhilwára, penetrated as far south as Ránder and Surat. The District then formed part of the dominions ruled over by a Hindu chief, who fled from his fortress at Kánrej, 13 miles east of Surat city, and submitted to the Musalmán conqueror, so obtaining leave to retain his principality. In 1347, during the Gujarát rebellion in the reign of Muhammad Tughlak, Surat was given up to be plundered by the troops of the Emperor. In 1373, Firoz Tughlak built a fort at Surat to protect the town against the Bhíls.

During the 15th century, no notice of Surat occurs in the chronicles of the Musalmán kings of Ahmadábád. But tradition generally assigns the foundation of the modern city to the beginning of the 16th century, when a rich Hindu trader, Gopi by name, settled here, and made many improvements. As early as 1514, the Portuguese traveller, Barbosa, describes Surat as 'a very important seaport, frequented by many ships from Malabar and all other ports.' Two years before, the Portuguese had burnt the town, an outrage which they repeated in 1530 and 1531. Thereupon, the Ahmadábád king gave orders for building a stronger fort, completed about 1546. In 1572, Surat fell into the hands of the Mírzás, then in rebellion against the Emperor Akbar. Early in the succeeding year, Akbar arrived in person before the town, which he captured after a vigorous siege. For 160 years,

the city and District remained under the administration of officers appointed by the Mughal court. During the reigns of Akbar, Jahángír, and Sháh Jahán, Surat enjoyed unbroken peace, and rose to be one of the first mercantile cities of India. In Akbar's great Revenue Survey, the city is mentioned as a first-class port, ruled by two distinct officers.

Since 1573, the Portuguese had remained undisputed masters of the Surat seas. But in 1608, an English ship arrived at the mouth of the Tápti, bringing letters from James I. to the Emperor Jahángír. Mukarab Khán, the Mughal governor, allowed the captain to bring his merchandise into the town. Next year, a second English ship arrived off Gujarát, but was wrecked on the Surat coast. The Portuguese endeavoured to prevent the shipwrecked crew from settling in the town, and they accordingly went up to Agra with their captain. In 1609, Bahádur, the last Musalmán king of Ahmadábád, attempted unsuccessfully to recover Surat from the Mughals. Two years later, a small fleet of 3 English ships arrived in the Tápti; but as the Portuguese occupied the coast and entrance, the English admiral, Sir H. Middleton, was compelled to anchor outside. Small skirmishes took place between the rival traders, until in the end the English withdrew. In 1612, however, the Governor of Gujarát concluded a treaty by which our countrymen were permitted to trade at Surat, Cambay, Ahmadábád, and Gogo. After a fierce fight with the Portuguese, the English made good their position, established a factory, and shortly afterwards obtained a charter from the Emperor.

Surat thus became the seat of a Presidency of the East India Company. The Company's ships usually anchored in a roadstead north of the mouth of the Tápti, called in old books 'Swally' or 'Swally Road,' but correctly Suwáli. Continued intrigues between the Portuguese and the Mughals made the position of the English traders long uncertain, till Sir Thomas Roe arrived in 1615, and went on to AJMERE, where Jahángír then held his court. After three years' residence there, Roe returned to the coast in 1618, bringing important privileges for the English. Meanwhile the Dutch had also made a settlement in Surat, and obtained leave to establish a factory.

Early travellers describe the city as populous and wealthy, with handsome houses and a great trade. The fifty years between the establishment of the English and Dutch and the accession of Aurangzeb formed a time of great and increasing prosperity for Surat. With the access of wealth, the town improved greatly in appearance. During the busy winter months, lodgings could hardly be obtained, owing to the influx of people. Caravans came and went to Golconda, to Agra, to Delhi, and to Lahore. Ships arrived from

the Konkan and the Malabar coast; while from the outer world, besides the flourishing European trade, merchants came from Arabia, the Persian Gulf, Ceylon, and Acheen in Sumatra. Silk and cotton cloth formed the chief articles of export.

European ships did not complete the lading and unlading of their cargoes at Surat; but having disposed of a part of their goods, and laid in a stock of indigo for the home market, they took on a supply of Gujarát manufactures for the eastern trade, and sailed to Acheen and Bantam, where they exchanged the remainder of their European and Indian merchandise for spices. The Dutch in particular made Surat their principal factory in India, while the French also had a small settlement here.

Under Aurangzeb, the District suffered from frequent Maráthá raids, which, however, did little to impair its mercantile position. The silting up of the head of the Cambay Gulf, the disturbed state of Northern Gujarát, and the destruction of Diu by the Maskat Arabs in 1670, combined to centre the trade of the Province upon Surat. Its position as 'the Gate of Mecca' was further increased in importance by the religious zeal of Aurangzeb. But the rise of the predatory Maráthá power put a temporary check on its prosperity.

The first considerable Maráthá raid took place in 1664, when Sivají the Great suddenly appeared before Surat, and pillaged the city unopposed for three days. He collected in that short time a booty estimated at one million sterling. Encouraged by this success, the Maráthá leader returned in the year 1669, and once more plundered the town. Thenceforward, for several years a Maráthá raid was almost an annual certainty. The Europeans usually retired to their factories on these occasions, and endeavoured, by conciliating the Maráthás, to save their own interests. Nevertheless, the city probably reached its highest pitch of wealth during this troublous period at the end of the 17th century. It contained a population estimated at 200,000 persons, and its buildings, especially two handsome mosques, were not unworthy of its commercial greatness. In 1695, it is described as 'the prime mart of India,—all nations of the world trading there; no ship trading in the Indian Ocean but what puts into Surat to buy, sell, or load.'

But the importance of Surat to the English East India Company declined considerably during the later part of Aurangzeb's reign, partly owing to the growing value of Bombay, and partly to the disorders in the city itself. In 1678 the settlement was reduced to an Agency, though three years later it once more became a Presidency. In 1684, orders were received to transfer the chief seat of the Company's trade to Bombay, a transfer actually effected in 1687. During the greater part of this period, the Dutch were the most successful traders in

Surat. The old Surat manuscript records are now (1886) being edited, and will in part be printed by order of the Bombay Government—a most valuable work.

From the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, the authority of the Delhi court gradually declined, and the Maráthás established themselves in power up to the very walls of Surat. The governors nominally appointed by the Mughals employed themselves chiefly in fighting with the Hindu intruders for the country just beyond the gates. At length, in 1733, Teg Bakht Khán, governor of the city, declared himself independent; and for twenty-seven years Surat remained under a native dynasty. For the first thirteen years of this period, Teg Bakht Khán maintained an unbroken control over the city; but after his death in 1746, a time of complete anarchy intervened. The English and Dutch took an active part in the struggles for the succession, sometimes in concert, and sometimes as partisans of the rival competitors. In 1759, internal faction had rendered trade so insecure, that the authorities at Bombay determined to make an attack upon Surat, with the sanction of the Maráthás, now practically masters of Western India. After a slight resistance, the governor capitulated, and the English became supreme in Surat.

For forty-one years, the government of the new dependency was practically carried on by the conquerors, but the governors or Nawábs still retained a show of independence until 1800. The earlier years of the English rule formed again a flourishing period for Surat, when the city increased in size, owing partly to the security of British protection and partly to the sudden development of a great export trade in raw cotton with China. The population of the city was estimated at 800,000 persons; and though this figure is doubtless excessive, Surat was probably the most populous town in all India. Towards the close of the century, however, the general disorder of all Central and Southern India, and the repeated wars in Europe, combined to weaken its prosperity. Two local events, the storm of 1782 and the famine of 1790, also contributed to drive away trade, the greater part of which now centred itself in Bombay.

In 1799, the last nominally independent Nawáb died; and an arrangement was effected with his brother, by which the government became wholly vested in the British, the new Nawáb retaining only the title and a considerable pension. The political management of Surat, up to the 14th May 1800, had first been under an officer styled 'Chief for the Affairs of the British Nation and Governor of the Mughal Castle and Fleet of Surat,' and subsequently under a Lieutenant-Governor, of whom the last was Mr. Daniel Seton, whose monument is in the cathedral at Bombay. By the proclamation of the Honourable I. Arathoon Duncan, dated 15th May 1800, Surat District was

placed under a Collector, Mr. E. Galley, and a Judge and Magistrate, Mr. Alexander Ramsay, one of whom, generally the Judge, was also in political charge of the titular Nawábs and the small chiefs in the neighbourhood as Agent to the Governor of Bombay. The arrangements of 1800 put the English in possession of Surat and Ránder; subsequent cessions under the treaties of Bassein (1802) and Poona (1817), together with the lapse of the Mándvi State in 1839, brought the District into its present shape. The title of Nawáb became extinct in 1842.

Since the introduction of British rule, Surat has remained free from external attacks and from internal anarchy, the only considerable breach of the public peace having been occasioned by the Musalmán disturbance in 1810. During the Mutiny of 1857, Surat enjoyed unbroken tranquillity, due in great measure to the stedfast loyalty of its leading Muhammadan family, that of the late Sayyid Idrus.

Population.—The Census of 1851 returned the total number of inhabitants at 492,684 persons. The Census of 1872 showed an increase in twenty-one years of 114,403 persons, or 23·22 per cent. The Census of 1881 disclosed a population of 614,198, being an increase of 6405 persons, or 1·05 per cent., on the figures of 1872. Density of population (1881), 369·5 persons per square mile, Surat ranking next to Kaira as densest among the Districts of the Presidency. The Census of 1881 gives the following details:—Area, 1662 square miles; number of towns 4, and villages 778; occupied houses 119,892, and unoccupied houses 26,816; villages and towns per square mile, 0·46; houses per square mile, 88·2; persons per house, 5·16. Classified according to sex, there were 306,015 males and 308,183 females; proportion of males, 49·8 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 125,653, and girls 118,355; total children, 244,008, or 39·7 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 180,362, and females 189,828; total adults, 370,190, or 60·3 per cent.

In point of religion, the population was thus distributed—Hindus, 415,031; Muhammadans, 55,547; non-Hindu aborigines, 118,664; Párs'is, 12,593; Jains, 11,670; Christians, 621; Jews, 61; Buddhists, 4; Sikhs, 3; Brahmos, 2; and 'others,' 2.

The Hindus were divided into the following main castes and social distinctions:—Bráhmans, 40,059; Rájputs, 8659; Dublás, 76,863; Kolís (cultivators), 49,452; Kunbís (cultivators), 36,801; Mhárs (depressed caste), 31,506; Telís (oilmen), 9581; Kumbhárs (potters), 9232; Sutárs (carpenters), 6538; Darzís (tailors), 5554; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 5373; Chamárs (workers in leather), 3577; Nápits (barbers), 3552; Bhandárís (sweetmeat makers), 3028; Lohárs (blacksmiths), 2730; Dhobís (washermen), 1416; and 'others,' 121,110.

The Muhammadan population, by race as distinguished from descendants of converts, consisted of—Shaikhs, 20,768; Patháns, 2264;

Sayyids, 1759; Sindís, 114; and 'others,' 30,642. According to sect, the Muhammadans were returned—Sunnís, 51,073; Shiás, 4436; and 'others,' 38.

Of the 621 Christians, 156 were returned as belonging to the Church of England, 296 as Roman Catholics, 144 as Presbyterians, and 25 as 'others.' Divided according to another classification, there were—Europeans, 196; Eurasians, 30; and Native converts, 395.

As regards occupation, the Census divided the male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 12,388; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers, 5582; (3) commercial class, including all bankers, merchants, and carriers, 9477; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 113,648; (5) industrial class, including all manufactures and artisans, 40,323; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 124,597.

Of the 782 towns and villages in Surat District in 1881, 151 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 298 from two to five hundred; 202 from five hundred to one thousand; 99 from one to two thousand; 16 from two to three thousand; 13 from three to five thousand; 1 between five and ten thousand; 1 between ten and fifteen thousand; and 1 upwards of fifty thousand.

The mass of the population, except in the large towns of Surat, Bulsár, and Ránder, live in villages scattered over the alluvial lowlands. The District contained only 3 towns in 1881 with a population exceeding 5000 souls, namely—SURAT (109,844), the head-quarters and chief commercial centre; BULSAR (13,229), a seaport on the Auranga river; and RANDER (9416), a considerable municipality with a large trade in cotton, on the Tápti, 2 miles above Surat. Bodhan is the chief place of Hindu pilgrimage, with a large temple; Párnera, near Bulsár, has a dismantled fort, long one of the strongest places in the District; Suwáli, the seaport of Surat, is a village outside the mouth of the Tápti. An important fair takes place yearly at the hamlet of Unái. The language in ordinary use is Gujaráti.

Agriculture.—Surat, in spite of the commercial importance of its chief town, still remains an essentially rural District. Of an area of 1649 square miles, 1155 square miles are cultivated, of which 45 square miles are non-revenue-paying; the remainder, 1110 square miles, together with 61 square miles, the area cultivable but unoccupied, are assessed for revenue, that is, a total of 1171 square miles; the area uncultivable being 433 square miles. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £252,207; average incidence of assessment, including local rates and cesses, 6s. 10½d. per acre. Average area of cultivable and uncultivated land per agri-

cultural worker, 3·5 acres. The cultivated area has largely increased of late years. In 1859–60, the total area taken up for tillage was 431,542 acres; by 1872–73 it had risen to 659,804 acres, showing an increase of 52·89 per cent.; and in 1883–84 to 752,932 acres. The area under actual cultivation in 1883–84 was 493,311 acres, of which 65,063 were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 303,455 acres; pulses, 97,574 acres; oil-seeds, 42,734 acres; fibres (cotton), 103,046 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 11,565 acres.

Rice forms the staple crop in Surat District, with an area of 86,448 acres in 1874–75, and 104,933 acres in 1883–84. It is grown chiefly on the black or red soil in the neighbourhood of tanks or ponds. Millet (*joár*) holds the second place, with an area of 72,521 acres in 1874–75, and of 104,650 in 1883–84. It is largely grown in the northern part of the District. Cotton covered 59,234 acres, chiefly in the valley of the Tápti, in 1874–75, and 100,767 acres in 1883–84. It is chiefly sown in the north, but the cultivation is spreading south. Cotton can only be raised in rotation with other crops. *Kodra* (Paspalum scrobiculatum) and *nágli* (Eleusine corocana) form the food of the poorest classes: area under these two crops, 57,626 acres in 1874–75, and 54,136 in 1883–84. The Mauritius sugar-cane was introduced in 1836, and is cultivated to a great extent, as it flourishes better in Surat than in any other District of Gujarát, and constitutes the favourite crop in garden land. The area under sugar-cane in 1883–84 was 6937 acres. Molasses, manufactured by the cultivators, forms a large item of export to Northern Gujarát and Káthiáwár. *Bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum) and tobacco occupy small areas: area under tobacco (1883–84), 1016 acres.

The two usual harvests, *kharíf* and *rabí*, prevail in Surat as in the rest of Gujarát. The most striking feature in the agriculture of the District is the difference between the tillage of the *ujli*, or fair races, and that of the *kála*, or dark aboriginal cultivators. The dark races use only the rudest processes; grow little save the coarser kinds of grain, seldom attempting to raise wheat or millet; and have no implements for weeding or cleaning the fields. After sowing their crops, they leave the land, and only return some months later for the harvest. As soon as they have gathered in their crops, they barter the surplus grain for liquor. The fair cultivators, on the other hand, who own the rich alluvial soil of the lowlands, are among the most industrious and intelligent in Western India. Nevertheless, many excellent crops for which the land is well fitted, such as indigo, tobacco, and wheat, are scantily raised, apparently for no better reason than that their cultivation has long been unusual. The Bháthela Bráhmans rank as the highest cultivating class, and with the aid of their hereditary servants (*hális*) give much of their time and attention to agriculture.

Except at the beginning of the season, and during harvest, the small proprietors are generally able, with the help of their families alone, to till their fields without hired labour. Among the sugar-cane villages in the south, however, large numbers of labourers find employment. Small holdings form the rule in Surat; but as a large number of them consist of garden land, they support the proprietors in comparative comfort. The largest holding is hardly ever more than 45 acres, and the smallest 2 acres. The average holding is 9 acres. The cultivators also earn considerable sums by carting timber and grain from the inland villages to the stations on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway and the sea-coast. Almost all the dark races, from their indolence and love of drink, are heavily in debt; but the fair races, though often under obligations to the money-lenders, are usually in comfortable circumstances. Government has instituted a scheme for reclaiming the waste lands overflowed by the tide, on terms highly remunerative to the public; and no less than 51,943 acres have been taken on lease for this purpose. These measures have on the whole met with much success. Irrigation is mainly carried on from ponds and reservoirs; but a proposition for an extended system of canals in connection with the river Tápti is now (1884) under consideration. The canal would start from Kamlápur, 35 miles above Surat. In 1883–84, the area actually irrigated was 25,236 acres for garden crops, and 17,279 acres for rice cultivation; total, 42,515 acres.

Wages have fallen of late years, owing to the general depression which followed upon the high prices prevailing during the American Civil War. They are still, however, higher than in many other parts of India. In 1883–84 the rates were—for skilled labour, 1s. 3d., and for unskilled 4½d. a day. Many of the labouring classes, especially among the dark races, remain practically in a position of serfdom, attached to hereditary masters. They squat on some open plot of their master's ground, and receive as wages nothing but their food and a few articles of clothing. Independent field labourers, taking one year with another, receive 4½d. per diem. The hire of a cart is from 2s. to 4s. a day, and of donkeys or ponies, 3d. to 6d. Prices have fallen since the American War. Food-grains ruled as follow in 1876:—Wheat, 24 lbs. for the rupee; *joár*, 34 lbs.; rice, 20 lbs.; pulse, 24 lbs. Prices in 1883–84 were as follows:—Wheat, 26 lbs. for a rupee (2s.); barley and best rice, each 14 lbs.; common rice, 16 lbs.; *bájra* and *joár*, each 30 lbs.; *dál* (split-peas), 24 lbs.; salt, 26 lbs. The agricultural stock of Surat District in 1883–84 was composed of 144,717 bullocks, 101,649 cows, 78,562 buffaloes, 967 horses and ponies, 84,174 sheep and goats, 126 donkeys, 50,912 ploughs, and 36,046 carts.

Natural Calamities.—The great famines of 1623, 1717, 1747, 1790,

and 1803 affected Surat as they did the remainder of Gujarát. Since the establishment of British rule, however, no famine has occurred sufficiently intense to cause serious suffering to the people. Grain rose to a high price, and remissions of land revenue became necessary in two or three years, during the earlier part of this century; but since 1839 no remission has been required. Floods on the Tápti form the most disastrous calamity to which Surat is liable. *See* TAPTI RIVER. The silting up of the river mouth has exerted a deteriorating influence upon the discharging power of the channels; and this influence has long been at work. In 1810 and 1822, the waters inundated a large part of the city. In 1835, the whole city lay under water, and 500 houses were carried away. In 1837, the river rose twice, and broke down a large portion of the city walls. In 1843 and 1849, similar destructive inundations took place. The Surat municipality undertook a series of protective works in 1869; and although severe floods have since occurred on several occasions, these works have sufficed to secure the city against the loss of life and property which formerly accompanied every inundation. But the Tápti is still a formidable danger to the town and neighbouring District. Since the first edition of this work appeared, disastrous floods have occurred during more than one rainy season, and almost every year brings a similar alarm.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Trade centres chiefly in the towns of Surat and Bulsár, as well as in the seaport of BILIMORA (Baroda territory). The Bániyás are the chief traders. Márwáris (mostly from Rájputána) are the rural money-lenders. The total value of the exports from the seven seaports which afford an outlet for the produce of the District in 1874 amounted to £444,642, and that of the imports to £70,505. These figures include the value of commodities shipped and received at Baroda ports. The two principal seaports of Surat are Surat city and Bulsár. The value of the exports from these taken together was £254,193; and of the imports, £187,509. The exports include grain, pulse, *mahuá* fruit, timber, and bamboos; the imports comprise tobacco, cotton seed, iron, cocoa-nuts, and European goods. In 1874, the shipping of Surat port amounted to 1533 vessels, of an average burden of 18 tons, and that of Bulsár to 2065 vessels, of the same average tonnage. In 1883–84, the shipping of Surat city port (entering and clearing with cargo) included 2876 vessels—gross tonnage, 57,485 tons; and the shipping of Bulsár, 2658 vessels—gross tonnage, 48,133 tons. The sea-borne trade of Surat is now (1885) little more than a third of what it was in the beginning of the present century. The inland route along the Tápti has still considerable importance, the number of pack-bullocks being estimated at from 20,000 to 40,000, and the total value of trade at £40,000 per

annum. The timber trade between the Dáng forests and the southern ports and railway stations also maintains its consequence; revenue from this source in 1881, £1708.

Among manufactures, the brocades of Surat had a reputation in former times, and were worked with gold and silver flowers on a silk ground. Surat city was also famed for its coarse and coloured cottons while Broach had a name for muslins. From Surat also came the most elegant targets of rhinoceros' hide, which was brought over from Arabia, and polished in Surat until it glistened like tortoise-shell. The shield was studded with silver nails, and then sold at a price varying from £3 to £5. Shipbuilding was at one time an important industry, to a great extent in the hands of the Pársis. The largest vessels were engaged in the China trade, and were from 500 to 1000 tons burthen. Many of the ships were built on European lines. They were mostly manned by English crews, and flew the English flag. At the present time (1885), the spinning and weaving of cotton holds the first place, employing almost the entire female population, both rural and urban, except amongst the aboriginal tribes. Surat city contains two steam factories for spinning and weaving. Silk brocade and embroidery are also largely manufactured by handlooms.

The Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway runs through the District from north to south for 73½ miles, with 15 stations, of which the chief are Surat, Navsári, Amalsár, Bilimora, and Bulsár. The District had 64 lines of road in 1882–83, with a total length of 325 miles. A magnificent iron girder bridge crosses the Tápti at Surat city. A steam ferry plies between Surat, Gogo, and Bhaunagar.

Administration.—In 1827–28, the earliest year for which the accounts remain, the total revenue of the District amounted to £282,714. In 1874–75 the revenue had risen to £475,879. The total taxation in the last-named year was £419,942, or 13s. 10d. per head of the population. Of this sum the land-tax contributed £224,173. In 1883–84 the total revenue of the District amounted to £378,618. The total taxation in the same year was £353,885, or 11s. 6d. per head of population. Of this sum the land-tax contributed £234,013; excise, £84,300; stamp duties, £14,913; and local funds, £20,659.

On the assumption of the Government in 1800, a Lieutenant-Governor was appointed, besides a Judge and Collector. The last-named is now the chief executive officer, and in his political capacity is Agent to the Governor of Bombay. The District contains 8 *táluks* or Sub-divisions. On British annexation, the *girasiás* or large landowners claimed, as the representatives of the original Hindu proprietors, a share of the land revenue, and levied their dues at the head of an armed force, until in 1813 the Government undertook to collect the amount by its own officers and pay the *girasiás*. The *desáis* were middlemen by

whom the land revenue was farmed; but with a view of decreasing their power and influence, accountants were appointed by the British to each village in 1814; and afterwards the revenue was collected direct from the cultivators, and the practice of farming discontinued. No change was made in the old rates until 1833, when, in consequence of the fall in prices, the rates were revised and considerably reduced. In 1836, committees were appointed to divide the soil into classes and to fix equitable rates; and from 1863 to 1873 the survey settlement was introduced. These rates hold good until 1895–96, when a re-settlement may be effected. Separate agreements are made with individual holders, and the rents are fixed according to the intrinsic value of the soil, with liability to revision on the expiry of a 30 years' lease.

The District contained, in 1883, 6 civil courts, while 19 officers shared criminal jurisdiction. The average distance from any village to the nearest civil court is 7 miles. The police of Surat was in a most disorderly state on the British annexation, and bands of armed thieves committed robberies in the neighbourhood and even in the streets of the city. Before many years, however, these open breaches of the peace had been effectually repressed. In 1883–84, the total strength of the regular police force was 695 men, maintained at a total cost of £11,971; being at the rate of 1 man to every 2·3 square miles and to every 885 of the population; while the cost was at the rate of £7, 4s. per square mile, or 4½d. per head of population. The chief obstacle to the efficiency of the police consists in the ease with which offenders can escape into the Portuguese territory of Daman or into the neighbouring Native States. In the north, bands of Bhíls cross the frontier, make depredations on the villagers, and retire with their plunder. To guard against these robbers, a system of black-mail still prevails in parts. The number of persons brought to trial by the police in 1883–84 was 1444, of whom 925, or 64 per cent., were convicted; value of property stolen, £2125, of which £783 was recovered by the police. There is one District jail; number of convicts, 232; total cost, £1336, or £5, 15s. 4d. per head.

Education makes steady though not rapid progress. In 1873–74 the District contained 253 Government schools, with a total roll of 12,414 pupils, of whom 8374 attended daily on an average. These figures show 1 school for every 3 villages, and 26·6 pupils to every thousand of the population under 20 years of age. The expenditure on education amounted to £14,544, of which £3033 was debited to the imperial treasury. In 1855 there were no girls' schools; but in 1873–74 there were 25, with an average attendance of 777 pupils. In 1883–84 the number of schools was 298; pupils, 20,728. The Census of 1881 returned 16,250 males and 1113 females under instruction, besides

45,851 males and 2157 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

For fiscal and administrative purposes the District is sub-divided into 8 Sub-divisions. The four municipalities of Surat, Bulsár, Ránder, and Mándvi had an aggregate revenue in 1874–75 of £23,233; and in 1883–84 of £28,965. The incidence of municipal taxation varies from 1s. 9½d. to 2s. 1¾d. per head.

Medical Aspects. — The climate of Surat varies greatly with the distance from the sea. In the neighbourhood of the coast, under the influence of the sea-breeze, which is carried up the creeks, an equable temperature prevails; but from 8 to 10 miles inland, the breeze ceases to blow. The coast possesses a much lighter rainfall than the interior, the annual average ranging from 30 inches in Olpád to 72 inches in Chikhli. The average at Surat city for the nineteen years ending 1881 amounted to 41·19 inches. Párdi in the south, and Mándvi in the north-east, have a bad reputation for unhealthiness. Of the Párdi climate there is a proverb—'Bagwára is half death; Mándvi is whole death.' The temperature of Surat city for a term of five years ending 1881 ranged as follows:—Average monthly mean—January, 70·3° F.; February, 73·2° F.; March, 79·6° F.; April, 84·6° F.; May, 85·7° F.; June, 84·7° F.; July, 81·5° F.; August, 80·7° F.; September, 80·9° F.; October, 80·3° F.; November, 75·3° F.; and December, 71·1° F.

The common endemic diseases include fever, ague, dysentery, and diarrhœa. The number of deaths assigned to cholera in 1883–84 was 457; to small-pox, 531; to snake-bites and wild beasts, 56. In Mándvi and the Dángs, a severe type of malarious fever prevails. For the five years ending 1884, the annual average death-rate was 27·5 per thousand. The number of deaths registered in 1883–84 was 19,316, or 31 per thousand, of which 11,756, or 60 per cent., were assigned to fever. The number of births registered in the same year was 21,610, or 35 per thousand.

The District contained in 1874–75, besides the civil hospital, 9 charitable dispensaries, all of them established since 1862. They afforded relief during that year to 55,300 persons, of whom 938 were in-door patients. The civil hospital, established in 1823, has a building erected in 1864 at a cost of £7190, through the liberality of Sir Cowasjí Jahángír, K.C.S.I. In 1883, the total number of hospitals and dispensaries was 12; total number of patients relieved—in-door, 1042; out-door, 87,547; total cost, £3633, the diet of each in-door patient on an average costing 2d. per day. Number of persons vaccinated (1883–84), 17,370. [For further information regarding Surat District, see vol. xi. of the *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, published under the orders of Government (Bombay Government Central Press, 1877). See also the *Bombay Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual

Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bombay Government from 1880 to 1884.]

Surat.—Chief city, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Surat District, Bombay, and the former seat of a Presidency under the East India Company. Lat. 21° 9′ 30″ N., long. 72° 54′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 109,844 persons, including 2690 returned as residing in the military depôt. Situated on the southern bank of the river Tápti; distant from the sea 14 miles by water, 10 miles by land. Once the chief commercial city of India, and still an important mercantile town, though the greater portion of its export and import trade has long since centred in Bombay.

Position and General Aspect.—Surat lies on a bend of the Tápti, where the river suddenly sweeps westward towards its mouth. In the centre of its river front rises the castle, a mass of irregular fortifications, flanked at each corner by large round towers, and presenting a picturesque appearance when viewed from the water. Planned and built in 1540 by Khudáwand Khán, a Turkish soldier in the service of the Gujarát kings, it remained a military fortress under the Mughal and the British rule till 1862, when the troops were withdrawn and the buildings utilized as public offices. With the castle as its centre, the city stretches in the arc of a circle for about a mile and a quarter along the river bank. Southward, the public park with its tall trees hides the houses in its rear; while low meadow lands elsewhere fringe the bank, from which the opposite ground rises slightly northward on the right shore, toward the ancient town of Ránder, now almost a suburb of Surat. Two lines of fortification, the inner and the outer, once enclosed Surat; and though the interior wall has long since all but disappeared, the moat which marks its former course still preserves distinct the city and the suburbs. Within the city proper, the space is on the whole thickly peopled; and the narrow but clean and well-watered streets wind between rows of handsome houses, the residences of high-caste Hindus and wealthy Pársís. The suburbs, on the other hand, lie scattered among wide open spaces, once villa gardens, but now cultivated only as fields. The unmetalled lanes, hollowed many feet deep, form watercourses in the rainy season, and stand thick in dust during the fair weather. The dwellings consist of huts of low-caste Hindus or weavers' cottages. West of the city, the military cantonment lies along the river bank, with its open parade-ground stretching down to the water's edge.

Population.—During the 18th century, Surat probably ranked as the most populous city of India. As late as 1797, its inhabitants were estimated at 800,000 persons; and though this calculation is doubtless excessive, the real numbers must have been very high. With the transfer of its trade to Bombay, the numbers rapidly fell off. In 1811,

an official report returns the population at 250,000 persons, and in 1816 at 124,406. In 1847, when the fortunes of Surat reached their lowest ebb, the number of inhabitants amounted to only 80,000. Thenceforward the city began to retrieve its position. By 1851, the total had risen to 89,505; in 1872, it stood at 107,149; and in 1881, at 109,844. Of this number, 76,264, or 69·4 per cent., were Hindus; 21,430, or 19·5 per cent., Muhammadans; 6227, or 5·7 per cent., Pársís; 5228, or 4·7 per cent., Jains; 519, or 0·5 per cent., Christians; and 176 'others.' The Pársís and high-caste Hindus form the wealthy classes; the Musalmáns are in depressed circumstances, except the Borahs, many of whom are prosperous traders, and whose head, called 'the Mullá of the Borahs,' resides here. Fondness for pleasure and ostentation characterize all classes and creeds in Surat alike. Caste feasts and processions are more common and more costly than elsewhere. Fairs, held a few miles away in the country, attract large crowds of gaily dressed men and children, in bright bullock-carts. The Pársís join largely in these entertainments, besides holding their own old-fashioned feasts in their public hall. The Borahs are famous for their hospitality and good living. The extravagant habits engendered by former commercial prosperity have survived the wealth on which they were founded.

History.—The annals of Surat city, under native rule, have already been briefly given in the article on SURAT DISTRICT. During the 17th and 18th centuries, Surat ranked as the chief export and import centre of India. After the assumption of the entire government by the British in 1800, prosperity, which had deserted the town towards the close of the last century, for a time reappeared. But the steady transfer of trade to Bombay, combined with the famine of 1813 in northern Gujarát, continued to undermine its commercial importance; and by 1825, the trade had sunk to the export of a little raw cotton to the rising capital of the Presidency. In 1837, two calamities occurred in close succession, which destroyed the greater part of the city, and reduced almost all its inhabitants to a state of poverty. For three days in the month of April, a fire raged through the very heart of Surat, laying 9373 houses in ruins, and extending over nearly 10 miles of thoroughfare, both in the city and the suburbs. No estimate can be given of the total loss to property, but the houses alone represented an approximate value of £450,000. Towards the close of the rainy season in the same year, the Tápti rose to the greatest height ever known, flooded almost the whole city, and covered the surrounding country for miles like a sea, entailing a further loss of about £27,000. This second calamity left the people almost helpless. Already, after the fire, many of the most intelligent merchants, both Hindu and Pársí, no longer bound to home by the ties of an establishment, had deserted

Surat for Bombay. In 1838 it remained 'but the shadow of what it had been, two-thirds to three-fourths of the city having been annihilated.' From 1840 onward, however, affairs began to change for the better. Trade improved and increased steadily, till in 1858 its position as the centre of railway operations in Gujarát brought a new influx of wealth and importance. The high prices which ruled during the American War again made Surat a wealthy city. The financial disasters of 1865–66 in Bombay somewhat affected all Western India, but Surat nevertheless preserved the greater part of its wealth. At the present day, though the fall of prices has reduced the value of property, the well-kept streets, the public buildings, and the large private expenditure stamp the city with an unmistakable air of steady order and prosperity.

Commerce and Trade-guilds. — The sea-borne commerce of Surat has declined from a total estimated value of £1,043,222 in 1801, to £327,221 in 1883–84, namely, imports £146,695, and exports £180,526. The export trade is markedly decreasing. The average value of the sea-borne trade for the five years ending 1883–84 was—imports, £122,175, and exports, £341,081; total, £463,256. The principal articles of export are agricultural produce and cotton. Since the opening of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, however, a great and growing land traffic has sprung up, which has done much to revive the prosperity of the city. The port of Surat is at Suwáli (Swally), 12 miles west of the city. The station of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway is outside the city, surrounded by a rising suburb.

The organization of trade-guilds is highly developed in Surat. The chief of these guilds, composed of the leading bankers and merchants, is called the *mahájan* or banker-guild. Its funds, derived from fees on cotton and on bills of exchange, are spent partly on the animal hospitals and partly on the temples of the Vallábhá Achárya sect. The title and office of Nagarseth, or chief merchant of the city, hereditary in a Sráwak or Jain family, has for long been little more than a name. Though including men of different castes and races, each class of craftsmen has its trade-guild or *panchávat*, with a headman or referee in petty trade disputes. They have also a common purse, spending their funds partly in charity and partly in entertainments. A favourite device for raising money is for the men of the craft or trade to agree, on a certain day, to shut all their shops but one. The right to keep open this one shop is then put up to auction, and the amount bid is credited to the guild fund.

Chief Buildings.—The English church, built in 1820 and consecrated by Bishop Heber on 17th April 1825, stands upon the river bank, between the castle and the custom-house, and has seats for about 100 persons. The Portuguese or Roman Catholic chapel occupies a site near the old Dutch factory. The Armenians have also a large church.

The Musalmáns have several large mosques, of which four are handsome buildings. The Nav Sayyid Sáhib's mosque stands on the bank of the Gopi Lake, an old dry tank, once reckoned among the finest works in Gujarát. Beside the mosque rise nine tombs, in honour of nine warriors, whose graves were miraculously discovered by a local Muhammadan saint. The Sayyid Idrus mosque, with a minaret which forms one of the most conspicuous buildings in Surat, was built in 1639 by a rich merchant, in honour of an ancestor of the present Shaikh Sayyid Husain Idrus, C.S.I. The Mirzá Sámi mosque and tomb, ornamented with carving and tracery, was built about 1540 by Khudáwand Khán. The Párs'is have two chief fire-temples for their two sub-divisions. The principal Hindu shrines perished in the fire of 1837, but have since been rebuilt by pious inhabitants. Gosávi Mahárájá's temple, built in 1695, was renewed after the fire at a cost of £10,000. Two shrines of Hanumán, the monkey-god, are much respected by the people.

The tombs of early European residents, as also those of the Dutch, and the more modern ones of the Mullás of the Borahs, form some of the most interesting objects in Surat. Among the first-named are those of many of the English 'Chiefs of Surat.' On the left of the entrance is the handsome mausoleum of Sir George Oxenden and his brother Christopher. It is a large two-storied square building with columns at each angle; in the two eastern ones are staircases to the upper storey, over which is a skeleton dome of masonry in the form of a Maltese cross rendered convex. Christopher died 18th April 1659; and Sir George, who, in a long Latin epitaph, is styled 'Anglorum in Indiâ, Persiâ, Arabiâ, Præses Insulæ Bombayensis Gubernator,' died on 14th July 1669, aged 50. The earliest tomb is that of Francis Breton, President of Surat, died 21st July 1649. And among the many tombs with curious inscriptions is one 'to Mary, the wife of Will. Andrew Price, chief of the Affairs of Surat, etc.,' who, it is said, 'through the spotted veil of the small-pox, rendered a pure and unspotted soul to God,' 13th April 1761, *ætat.* 23. The tombs have been carefully looked after of late years. In the Dutch cemetery, which adjoins the English, there are also some curious and handsome tombs. One in particular to Mr. Van Reede, Commissary-General of the Dutch E. I. Company over the western factories, who died on 15th December 1691, cost the Company £600 merely for repairs.

Two hospitals provide for the indigent poor; and there is at least one such institution for sick or worn-out animals. The clock-tower on the Delhi road, 80 feet in height, was erected in 1871 at the expense of Khán Bahádur Barjorji Merwánjí Frazer. The High School provides accommodation for 500 boys.

Municipality.—The municipal revenue in 1881 amounted to £25,180,

and the expenditure to £24,882. The municipal population in 1881 was 107,154. The incidence of taxation was at the rate of 2s. 1¾d. per head of population. The municipality has opened a number of excellent roads, well lighted, paved, and watered. It has also constructed works for the protection of the city from floods, and for lessening the risk of fire. Systems of drainage, conservancy, and public markets have also been undertaken. No city in the Presidency, except Bombay, owes so much to its municipality as Surat.

Surat Agency, The.—A small group of Native States in Bombay Presidency, under the superintendence of the Political Agent, Surat. The group consists of the Sidi (Musalmán) Principality of SACHIN, comprising a number of isolated tracts within the British District of Surat; and the estates of the Rájás of BANSDA and DHARAMPUR, situated in the hilly tracts between the Districts of Khándesh, Násik, Thána (Tanna), and Surat. Area, 1220 square miles. Population (1881) 151,132, namely, males 77,633, and females 73,499; occupying 27,894 houses in 1 town and 378 villages. Non-Hindu aboriginés number 113,916; Hindus, 31,645; Muhammadans, 4727; Pársís, 740; Jains, 95; Jews, 7; and Christians, 2. The gross revenue of these States in 1883–84 was £61,642. The force maintained in the same year was 330 infantry, 40 cavalry, 34 mounted police, 6 elephants, 9 cannons, and 5 police constables.

Surgána.—One of the petty Bhíl States in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; situated in the south-west corner of Khándesh District. Estimated area, 360 square miles. Population (1881) 14,205. Estimated revenue, £11,469.

Like the Dángs, Surgána State is full of spurs of hills and waving uplands once covered with dense forest, now partly cleared and stripped of most of their valuable timber. The chief forest trees are teak, blackwood (Dalbergia Sissoo), *khair* (Acacia Catechu), and *tivas*. Other forest products include fruit, gums, honey, lac, and tree roots. The soil chiefly consists of a loose rich black loam, which, though generally of little depth, is very fertile. The richest spots are at the bottom of the valleys. The staple of food is *nágli* (Eleusine corocana), an early crop raised on the slopes of the hills by hand labour.

The ancestors of the Surgána *desmukh* appear to have been Kolís, who lived in the fastnesses round Hátgarh. During Muhammadan rule a nominal allegiance was claimed from them; and they were entrusted with the charge of preventing the wild Bhíls and Kolís of the Dángs from passing above the Sahyádri hills, of rendering military service when required, and of keeping open the roads that ran through their territory. Under Maráthá rule, on the *desmukh* refusing to pay any revenue, his country along with the Dángs was included in rebel land (*bandi mulkh*). But as Surgána lay on one of the high roads between the Deccan and

Surat, great efforts were made to conciliate the chief. The Surgána *desmukh* continued independent until 1818, when the British Government led an expedition, in retaliation for an attack made on a Britis party, against the chief, who was seized and hanged, and his cousin recognised as the head of the State. This led to disputes about the succession, which were not settled till 1842. The chiefship descends in the line of one brother, while the descendants of another brother have an equal share in the revenues, independent of all control. The chief manages the State in person.

Surharpur.—*Parganá* in Tánda *tahsíl*, Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated in the south-east corner of the District, along both sides of the river Tons. Area, 92,256 acres, of which 50,043 acres are cultivated, 14,334 acres cultivable, and 27,879 acres uncultivable waste. A considerable portion of the area consists of saline *úsar* tracts. Population (1881) 92,037, namely, males 47,142, and females 44,895. Government land revenue, £9817, or at the rate of 3s. 6d. per cultivable acre. Of the 235 villages comprising the *parganá*, 145 are held under *tálukdárí* and 90 under *zamíndárí* tenure. The principal landholders belong to Palwár and Rájkumár Rájput families, who own 86 of the *tálukdárí* villages, the remaining 59 being owned by Muhammadan Sayyids. The chief town, Surharpur, is now a place of small importance, with a population in 1881 of only 1475. It contains the ruins of an old Bhar fortress. Prior to annexation, the *parganá* contained a colony of 600 Muhammadan weaving families; but the industry has declined under the competition of European piece-goods, and there are now but 300 families of weavers, living in the small towns of Jalálpur and Nákpur.

Surí (*Sooree*).—Head-quarters Sub-division of Bírbhúm District, Bengal. Area, 1087 square miles; number of villages, 1905; houses, 115,286. Population (1881), males 233,297, and females 250,624; total, 483,921. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 396,982; Muhammadans, 81,824; Christians, 39; Santáls, 5026; and other aborigines, 50. Density of population, 445 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·75; persons per village, 254; houses, per square mile, 118; persons per house, 4·2. This Sub-division comprises the four police circles (*thánás*) of Surí, Dubrájpur, Bolpur, and Sákulipur. In 1883 it contained 5 civil and 4 criminal courts, with a regular police force of 266 officers and men, and 4815 rural police or village watchmen.

Surí (*Sooree*).—Chief town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Bírbhúm District, Bengal; situated about 3 miles south of the Mor river, in lat. 23° 54′ 23″ N., and long. 87° 34′ 14″ E. Population (1881) 7848, namely, Hindus, 5838; Muhammadans, 1991; and 'others,' 19. Municipal income (1883–84), £523, of which £461 was

derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2⅜d. per head. The town is situated upon the summit and extremity of a gravel ridge.

Surír.—Town in Mát *tahsíl*, Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces; situated 1 mile east of the Jumna (Jamuná) river, in lat. 27° 46′ 17″ N., and long. 77° 45′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 5199, chiefly Thákurs or Rájputs, Baniyás, and Bairágis. Hindus 4906, and Muhammadans 293. Police station; post-office; weekly market.

Surírpur.—Village in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 1′ 45″ N., and long. 77° 18′ E., 28 miles west of Meerut city. Population (1881) 5374, namely, Hindus, 4838; Muhammadans, 355; and Jains, 181. The Eastern Jumna Canal waters the surrounding lands.

Surjyágarh.—Lofty hill of striking aspect in the north of the Ahírí chiefship, Chándá District, Central Provinces. About the year 1700, two chieftains, Sádhu Varya and Múla Varya, rebelled against King Rám Sháh, and fortified this hill, from which they plundered the country round. Rám Sháh then granted the tract now known as the Ahírí chiefship to his kinsman Kok Sá, who stormed Surjyágarh and killed the insurgent leaders.

Surjyanagar.—Capital of Kashmír State, Northern India.—*See* SRINAGAR.

Surmá.—The name given to the main branch of the BARAK river in Sylhet District, Assam. On entering Sylhet District from Cachar, the Bárak divides into two branches, the Surmá and the Kusiyára, the former of which is navigable during the rains by steamers and large boats as far as Chhaták, and above that point by small boats all the year through. The chief places on the Surmá branch are Sylhet town, Chhaták, and Sonámganj; at the two latter marts the lime, potatoes, and oranges of the Khási Hills are collected and transmitted to Bengal. The name of the Surmá valley is sometimes given to the two Districts of Sylhet and Cachar, to mark them off from the Districts of Assam Proper in the Brahmaputra valley.

Sursatí (*Sarsuti*).—River in the Punjab.—*See* SARASWATI.

Súr Singh.—Town in Kasúr *tahsíl*, Lahore District, Punjab; situated on the road from Firozpur to Amritsar, 19 miles north-east of Khem Karn town. Population (1881) 5104, namely, Muhammadans, 1992; Sikhs, 1942; and Hindus, 1170. Súr Singh is an unwalled collection of houses, mostly built of sun-dried bricks, with a few more commodious and better built houses of burnt bricks. Noted for the manufacture of a superior kind of chintz.

Surul.—Village in Bírbhúm District, Bengal; situated in the south of the District, about 5 miles north of the Ajai river. Noteworthy

as the site of an old Commercial Residency, formerly the centre of the Company's trade in Bírbhúm. During the latter years of the last century, from £45,000 to £65,000 was annually expended on mercantile investment at Surul. The first Commercial Resident, Mr. Cheap, who exercised magisterial powers, has left behind him the name of 'Cheap, the Magnificent.' He introduced indigo cultivation into the District, improved the manufacture of sugar by means of apparatus brought from Europe, and established a private firm, which flourished until within the last few years. When the Company gave up their commercial dealings, the Residency at Surul was abandoned, and the village allowed to fall into decay. The ruins crown the top of a small hill visible for miles.

Susang.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Maimansingh District, Bengal; and also the name of a *parganá* in the same District. Area, 451 square miles; land revenue, £2183. Court at Netrakoná. The *zamíndár* has the title of Mahárájá; his palace, a large but dilapidated building, is situated at Durgápur, a village with a population (1881) of 1126.

Súsúmau.—Town in Unao District, Oudh. Lat. 26° 52′ N., long. 80° 19′ E. Population (1881) 1208, namely, Hindus 1184, and Muhammadans 24; residing in 304 mud-built houses. Formerly the residence of Sayyid Mubárak Alí, whose name it bore—Mubárakpur. It afterwards fell into decay; and on the expulsion of the Sayyids by Karan Deo, it was reclaimed by Kanchan Singh of the Janwár clan in the time of the Emperor Akbar. Situated on a level tract of ground; appearance pretty; climate healthy; water sweet; soil loam. Scene of a battle between Karan Deo and the Sayyids. Market for the sale of English cloth, bullocks, and vegetables, attended by about 700 persons. Manufactures of shoes, earthenware, and jewellery. Annual value of sales, £1000.

Susuniá.—Hill in Bánkurá District, Bengal; situated due west of Korá. It runs due east and west for 2 miles, its height being 1442 feet above sea-level. Covered with heavy tree jungle, except on its south face, where it has been quarried by the Bardwán Stone Company for building-stone. The Company's operations at Susuniá were recently suspended.

Sutalia.—Guaranteed Girásia chiefship under the political superintendence of the Bhopál Agency, Central India. The chief pays, under British guarantee, £340 to the chief of Rájgarh, within whose State he holds a lease of twelve villages. Estimated revenue, £2200. Population (1881) 5108, namely, Hindus, 4661; Muhammadans, 157; Jains, 21; and aborigines, 269.

Suthumba.—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SATHAMBA.

Súti.—Town in Murshidábád District, Bengal; situated in the north-

west of the District, on the Ganges, at the point where it is usually recognised that the Bhágírathí branches off. Lat. 24° 35′ 30 N., long. 88° 6′ E. This spot has always been the scene of great fluvial changes; and the present village of Súrí is only in name identical with that which has attained celebrity in history as the scene of a severely contested battle, fought in 1763, between Mír Kásim, the Nawáb of Bengal, and the British army. In 1856, a large portion of Súrí was washed away by a flood.

Sutlej (*Satlaj*).—One of the 'Five Rivers' of the Punjab, from which the Province derives its name. Rises among the Himálayas in Chinese territory, about lat. 30° 8′ N., and long. 81° 53′ E. The interest of the Sutlej is to some extent absorbed in that of the INDUS, with which it eventually unites, and which is very fully treated in its alphabetical place. The Sutlej, like the Indus, rises on the slopes of the sacred Kailás Mountain, the Elysium, or Siva's Paradise, of ancient Sanskrit literature, with peaks estimated at 22,000 feet high. It is said to issue from the Mánasarowar (Mánasa-Sarovara) Lake, which plays so important a part in Sanskrit cosmogony. According to another account, it issues from another and larger lake called Rávana-hráda, or Rakas-tál, which lies close to Mánasarowar on the west. Mr. Trelawny Saunders states that it rises 'in the great lakes named Mánasarowar and Rakas-tál.' The truth seems to be that these are twin lakes, united with each other, and that the Sutlej issues from the Rakas-tál, although its effluence from the lake is intermittent. (Colonel H. Yule, adopting Captain H. Strachey's account in *Jour. Geog. Soc.*, vol. xxiii., and in *Jour. Beng. Soc.*)

The Mánasarowar had, according to the Hindu mythology, the honour of being also the source of the Ganges, which, of course, is a mere myth. The Sutlej rises near the source, not only of the Indus, but also of the Brahmaputra; and the Kailás mountain is thus ascertained by modern investigations to have a real claim to the position which it holds in Sanskrit tradition as the Meeting-Place of Waters. The Brahmaputra, or rather the Tsan-pu, as it is known in Tibet, flows to the east, the Indus to the west, and the Sutlej to the south-west.

Starting at an elevation of 15,200 feet, the Sutlej first crosses the plain of Goge — a vast alluvial tract formed from deposits which the river and its mountain-feeders have swept down from the Himálayas. It has scoured a passage across the plain in a channel said to be 4000 feet deep, between precipitous banks of alluvial soil. Near Shipki, the frontier Chinese outpost, the Sutlej turns sharp to the south, and commences its marvellous passage through the Himálayas. It pierces the southern chain of these great mountains through a gorge with heights of 20,000 feet on either side. At Shipki, its elevation is said to be 10,000 feet above the level of the sea. By the time the river

has reached Rámpur in Bashahr State, it has fallen to about 3000 feet, and at Biláspur to a little over 1000 feet.

After entering British territory, the details of its course may be sketched as follows. For the first 200 miles it runs through a wild and almost unpeopled mountain country, receiving the Li or river of Spiti near Dáblang. Thenceforth the united stream takes a south-westerly direction, through Bashahr and the Simla Hill States, and on entering the British District of Hoshiárpur, takes a sudden southward bend round the spurs of the Siwálik hills. Debouching upon the plains near Rupar, it divides Ambála (Umballa) District from Hoshiárpur, or the Jálandhar (Jullundur) Doáb from the Sirhind plateau. It next flows almost due west, between Jálandhar on the north, and Ambála, Ludhiána, and Firozpur on the south, till it receives the BEAS (Biás) at the south-western corner of Kapurthála State (lat. 31° 11′ N., long. 75° 4′ E.). The united river thenceforward preserves an almost uniform south-westerly direction till its junction with the Indus. Its south-eastern shore is bordered by the Districts of Firozpur and Sírsa, and the sterile Native State of Baháwalpur; its north-western by the Bári Doáb, comprising parts of Lahore, Montgomery, and Múltán Districts. The whole of its course throughout the plains is fringed by a fertile lowland valley, confined at either side by high banks, which lead to the comparatively barren table-lands above; but the lower portion lies through a much less fruitful tract, partaking largely of the characteristics which mark the desert of Rájputána. A fringe of extremely rich and highly cultivated land, however, varying in width from 2 to 10 miles, stretches along the right bank of the Sutlej in Múltán and Montgomery District, and in Baháwalpur State. This fringe is artificially widened by numerous inundation canals, which carry the waters of the Sutlej far inland. Near Madwála the Sutlej joins the TRIMAB, and the whole river then bears the name of the Panjnad; and finally falls into the Indus, after a total course of about 900 miles, near Mithánkot, at 258 feet above sea-level. Like other rivers having their rise in the Himálayas, the Sutlej attains its greatest volume in June, July, and August. A railway bridge on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Line crosses the Sutlej at Phillour, and another carries the Indus Valley State Railway near Baháwalpur. Steamers can ascend the river during the floods as far as Firozpur.

The Sutlej has been identified with the Ζαράδρος (various reading Ζαράδρης) of Ptolemy; the Sydrus, or better reading Hesidrus, of Pliny.

Sutna (*Satná*). — Town and British cantonment in Rewá State, Baghelkhand, Central India; with a station on the East India Railway, 110 miles from Alláhábád and 118 miles from Jabalpur. Population (1881) 5385, namely, Hindus, 4362; Muhammadans, 948; and 'others,' 75. Sutna is occupied by a detachment of a

regiment of Bengal cavalry, and is the head-quarters of the Baghelkhand Political Agency. It is a town of considerable importance, and is connected with Rewá town by a made road 31 miles in length. A metalled and bridged road 101 miles in length, passing through the towns of SOHAWAL, NAGODE, PANNA, and CHHATARPUR, connects Sutna with NOWGONG. A considerable trade in linseed, wheat, and other cereals is carried on. In addition to the cantonment, railway station, and Agency buildings, Sutna contains a hospital, dispensary, school, police station, and post-office.

Swa.—River in Taung-ngu District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; rises in the Pegu Yoma Mountains, and after an easterly course of 60 miles, falls into the Sittaung, about 24 miles north of Taung-ngu town. In the rainy season, boats of from 30 to 35 feet in length can ascend as far as Ayo-daung, a village situated 38 miles from the mouth of the Swa. All along its course sandstone is found. The country which it drains produces teak and other valuable trees; and large quantities of timber are annually floated down for the Taung-ngu market, together with raw silk prepared by the inhabitants, who rear silkworms extensively.

Swarúpganj.—Town, with considerable river traffic, on the Jalangí river, in Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 25′ N., long. 88° 26′ 15″ E. Chief exports—grain, oil-seeds, and molasses.

Swát (the *Suastos* of the Greek geographers; Sanskrit, *Suvastu*).—River in Pesháwar District, Punjab. Rises beyond the British frontier on the eastern slopes of the mountains which divide Panjakora from Swát territory; receives the drainage of the entire Swát valley; enters Pesháwar District north of Abazai, and finally joins the Kábul river at Nisatha. Below Abazai, the Swát divides into three channels. The main stream formerly ran in the Doába direction, and formed the boundary with Háshtnagar; but of late years it has changed its course, and now runs east. All three branches fall into the Kábul above Nisatha. Ferries are established at Abazai, Utmanzai, Chársada, Prang, and Nisatha, but the river is fordable above Utmanzai in the winter. The waters are clear and cold, and till it reaches Chársada the river runs over a bed of loose stones.

The head-works of the Swát river canal (now in partial operation, and the distributaries rapidly approaching completion) are situated above the Abazai fort on the left bank of the river. Two forts lie between Abazai and the head-works of the canal, garrisoned by local levies. The whole of the Doába, and the lowlands of Háshtnagar (Sholgira), are irrigated from the Swát river. During the summer months a large amount of timber is floated down the stream. In 1882 a great flood occurred, in which the water rose 6 feet above the former flood-level.

Swatch of No Ground.—A great natural depression in the Bay of

Bengal, lying off the Gangetic Delta, due south of the rivers RAIMANGAL and MALANCHA; extends north by east from lat. 20° 30′ to 21° 22′ N., 3 leagues in breadth, with its northern extremity about 5 leagues from the land, and its western edge about 40 miles eastward of Ságar Sand. The interior of this basin has not yet been sounded; but on its northern edge the depth of water is about 13 fathoms, decreasing towards the land; the other parts of its circumference deepen regularly off. 'Its sides are so steep and well defined,' says Mr. J. Fergusson, in a paper on 'Recent Changes in the Delta of the Ganges' (published in the *Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society* for August 1863), 'that it affords mariners the best possible sea-mark; the lead suddenly dropping, especially on its western face, from 5 and 10 to 200 and even 300 fathoms, with no ground.' Mr. Fergusson does not consider that the sinking is due to volcanic agency, but attributes it to the action of rotatory tides in the bay. This action is strictly analogous to that of the phenomenon known as the 'bore,' which exists to a greater or less extent in all funnel-shaped tidal estuaries. Two circular tides, formed at the mouth of the Húglí, meet in the bay. The consequence seems to be, says Mr. Fergusson, that they must do one of two things—either they must throw up a bar between them or they must scoop out a depression. The first would be the action of two rivers, the velocity of whose currents was diminished or stopped by contact with the ocean; the latter is the probable action of the tides as they actually exist, and is sufficient to account for the formation of the depression.

Syámbázár.—Town in Húglí District, Bengal; situated a few miles south of the Ajai river, in lat. 23° 35′ 10″ N., and long. 87° 32′ 5″ E. Population (1881) 12,462, namely, males 6056, and females 6406. Hindus number 11,960, and Muhammadans 502. Municipal income (1883–84), £232; rate of taxation, 3¾d. per head of population (14,606) within municipal limits. Syámbázár has an old *sarái* (native inn), dated 1125 A.H.

Syámnagar.—River-side village in the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, and a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 18½ miles from Calcutta. A short distance east of the station are the ruins of an old fort, surrounded by a moat about 4 miles in circumference, built in the last century by a Rájá of Bardwán as a refuge from the Maráthás; it now belongs to the Tagore family, Calcutta, and is protected by thick date plantations.

Sydapet.—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SAIDAPET.

Sylhet (*Srihatta*).—British District in the Chief Commissionership of Assam, lying between 25° 12′ and 23° 58′ 42″ N. lat., and between 91° and 92° 37′ 40″ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Khási and Jaintia Hills District; on the east by Cachar; on the south by the

Native State of Hill Tipperah, and the Bengal District of Tipperah; and on the west by the Bengal District of Maimansingh. Sylhet District contains an area, according to recent survey, of 5413 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1881, of 1,969,009 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at SYLHET TOWN, on the right bank of the Surmá river, in 24° 53′ 22″ N. lat., and 91° 54′ 40″ E. long.

Physical Aspects.—Sylhet consists of the lower valley of the Bárak or Surmá river—a rich alluvial tract about 70 miles wide, bounded north and south by mountains, and opening westwards to the plain of Lower Bengal. The greater part of the District is a uniform level, only broken by clusters of little hillocks called *tilás*, and intersected by a network of rivers and drainage channels. During the rainy season—from June to October—the torrents that pour down from the surrounding hills convert the entire western part of the District into a sea of water, amid which the raised village sites appear as islands, and the only means of communication is by boat. The banks of the rivers, as is the case in all alluvial tracts, are raised by the annual flood deposits to a higher level than that of the surrounding country. The low strip of land lying beneath is every year subject to a protracted inundation, and is usually left to weeds and grass. Farther back, as the surface gradually rises, the soil is under continuous rice cultivation. The village sites are embowered in groves of bamboos, palms, and other trees. The soil of the District is for the most part of blue clay, which turns to black on the borders of the swamps or *háors*, as they are locally termed.

In the south of the District, eight low ranges of hills run out into the plain, being spurs of the Tipperah mountains. The highest is about 1000 feet above sea-level. There is also a small detached group, the Ita Hills, in the centre of the District. The *tilás* or hillocks, which are scattered all over the valley, rise to a height of nearly 80 feet near Sylhet town. For the most part they are overgrown with grass jungle, but many have been cleared for the cultivation of tea.

The river system of Sylhet District is constituted by the BARAK or SURMA, with its many tributaries and offshoots. This river enters the District from Cachar, and forthwith bifurcates into two branches. The main branch, or the Surmá, flows beneath the hills bordering the north of the District; the minor branch, or the Kusiyára, runs in a south-westerly direction across the District; and the two again unite on the south-western boundary, to fall into the estuary of the Meghná under the name of the Dhaleswarí. Both are navigable by large boats and support a busy traffic. The river steamers pass up the Surmá into Cachar, and this river also brings down the limestone and other products of the Khási hills. Two short canals

or artificial watercourses have been cut in recent years to facilitate navigation.

There are now no embankments in the District to protect the fields against flood, those that formerly existed having been suffered to fall into decay about fifty years ago. It is argued that the land benefits more from the silt deposited during inundations than it used to do, from any artificial interference with the natural lines of drainage. Some progress has been made towards bringing under tillage the swamps and low-lying tracts; and it is considered probable that all these *háors*, which are entirely under water during the rains, but which dry up in the cold weather, are capable of reclamation. Many of them are now utilized as pasture-grounds for cattle. The deeper marshes, which contain water throughout the year, are used as reed and cane producing grounds. Long-stemmed rice is plentifully cultivated in the low-lying lands, and flourishes in a depth of 15 feet of water.

Coal has been discovered in Sylhet, but the coal-field has not yet been examined. The northern hills yield an inexhaustible supply of limestone, but the principal quarries lie within the Khási Hills.

The finest timber is found in the south-east of the District, where a tract covering 273 square miles has been declared to be a 'Protected Forest.' The most valuable trees are the *jarúl* (Lagerstrœmia Flos-Reginæ) and the *nágeswar* (Mesua ferrea), the felling of both of which is prohibited, unless the trees exceed 4 feet in girth. There is no *sál* or *sissu* anywhere, and only one small clump of teak, the property of Government. A large export of timber, bamboos, and thatching grass from the southern hills of Cachar is carried on by river through Sylhet, as far as Maimansingh and Dacca. Other wild products are lac, beeswax, honey, and a perfume called *agar attar* prepared from the resinous sap of the *pitákará* tree (Aquilaria Agallocha), which is exported as far as Arabia and Turkey.

The wild animals comprise elephants, tigers, buffaloes, and several species of deer. The rhinoceros has not been seen of late years. Wild elephants are captured in *khedás* or stockades, chiefly in the south-east of the District, for the Government Commissariat Department. Teal and wild ducks are found in large numbers in the low-lying, marshy country to the west, and in the Jaintia plains to the east; and wild geese, jungle-fowl, and pheasants are common. The rivers abound in fish, and the drying of fish forms an important industry. Excellent *máhsir* fishing is to be had in the streams issuing from the northern hills.

History.—Sylhet, lying in a remote corner of Bengal, was one of the last conquests made by the Muhammadans. Even at the present day, many special features in the administration mark its character as a frontier District. Since September 1874 it has been annexed to the Chief Commissionership of Assam; but in the ethnological character of

its population, as well as in its history, Sylhet, together with the adjoining District of Cachar, forms an integral portion of Eastern Bengal. In early times this tract of country was divided among many petty States, of which three, namely (1) Gor, (2) Laur, and (3) Jaintia, are historical. The local tradition of the arrival of Bráhmans from Bengal in the time of King Adisur would seem to indicate that the inhabitants of these three States were of aboriginal descent, and that Hinduism was introduced among them at a comparatively late period. The subsequent conversion of half the population to Islám points in the same direction.

The Muhammadans first invaded the District towards the close of the 14th century, when the Afghán King Sháms-ud-dín was ruling over Bengal with his capital at the city of GAUR. The invaders were led by a *fákír* or religious fanatic called Sháh Jalál, whose miraculous powers are said to have effected more than the swords of his followers in overthrowing the local Hindu dynasty then represented by Gaur Gobind. The secular leader of the Musalmáns was Sikandar Ghází; but his reputation is quite eclipsed by that of Sháh Jalál, whose tomb in Sylhet town is still a frequented place of pilgrimage. The only portion of Sylhet conquered at this time was the territory of Gor, which was placed under the charge of a Nawáb. The chief of Laur retained his independence until the reign of the Emperor Akbar, when Bengal passed under the rule of the Mughals. The last Hindu Rájá of Laur, also called Gobind, was summoned by Akbar to Delhi, and there became a convert to the faith of Islám. He submitted to undertake the defence of the frontier, but did not pay tribute. His grandson removed his residence to Baniáchang in the first half of the 18th century. At about the same period a tribute of forty-eight large boats was imposed upon him by Alí Vardí Khán, the Nawáb of Murshidábád; and subsequently three-fourths of his estates were assessed.

When the British obtained possession of the *díwání* of Bengal in 1765, Jaintia was still independent. Sylhet proper was governed by officers called *amíls*, directly subordinate to the Nawáb of Dacca. The system of administration was modelled after the necessities of a frontier District. The land assessment was light; and colonies of Muhammadan soldiery were posted along the border, who held their villages without payment of revenue on a sort of feudal tenure. During the early years of British administration, Sylhet was much neglected. The population was turbulent, means of communication were difficult, and all the arts of civilisation were very backward. Raids on the part of the border tribes and insurrections of the Musalmán inhabitants demanded the continual presence of a body of troops, whose existence is still continued in the Regiment of Sylhet Light Infantry, now the 44th Native Infantry. The soil is extremely fertile, and in ordinary years yields

abundant crops of rice. But in those early days the channels of trade were not open. A good harvest so depressed prices in the local markets that the cultivators were rendered unable to pay their revenue to Government. On the other hand, disastrous floods were of common occurrence, and in a few days changed plenty into the extremity of famine. A vivid picture of the condition of the country at the end of the 18th century is quoted from the *Lives of the Lindsays*, as an Appendix to the *Statistical Account of Sylhet*.

The territory of the Rájá of Jaintia was confiscated in 1835, in consequence of his complicity in the forcible seizure of certain British subjects, who were barbarously sacrificed at the shrine of Kálí. The Rájá, Indra Singh, was granted a pension of £600 a year, and he resided peaceably in Sylhet until his death in 1861. The plains portion of his territory, extending from the foot of the hills to the Surmá river, was annexed to Sylhet District, while the remainder now constitutes the Jaintia Hills Sub-division of the Khási Hills District. Since that date, Sylhet has undergone no historical changes, until it was annexed in 1874 to the Chief Commissionership of Assam.

The only troubles of the administration have arisen from the confusion in which the land settlement is involved. The Permanent Settlement of 1793 was only partially extended to Sylhet, and included about 1,449,804 acres, of which about one-fourth was cultivated, the annual Government revenue on which was assessed at 1515 *kaháns* of *kaurís*, or approximately £32,400. But the area dealt with by the Permanent Settlement was only about one-half of the whole area of the District as it then stood. No actual survey was made of the remaining half; and it was soon discovered that the landlords or *mirásdárs* in the cultivated tract claimed to exercise rights of property over the adjoining jungle. This claim has been persistently opposed by the Government, and has given rise to the historical dispute about the *ilám* lands, which began in 1802 and was finally terminated by a decision of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal in 1869. The *ilám* lands represent the difference between the total area of the District and that portion assessed by the Permanent Settlement. These lands have been temporarily settled for short periods and on easy terms with the occupants. The land settlement in the Jaintia plains is made with the cultivators themselves for terms of twenty years.

Population.—In 1853, the total population of Sylhet District was estimated at 1,393,050. The regular Census of 1872, the first enumeration that has any pretension to accuracy, disclosed a total of 1,719,539 persons. At the last Census in 1881, the population was returned at 1,969,009, showing an apparent increase of 249,470, or 14·5 per cent., in the nine years since 1872. This increase is to a large extent only apparent, being really due to under-enumeration in 1872, which is

estimated to have been 10 per cent. below the facts. The District officer puts the actual increase at about 5 per cent. for the nine years.

The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of the District, as returned for Census purposes, 5440 square miles (actual area, 5413 square miles), with 1 town and 8986 villages; houses, 387,596. Total population, 1,969,009, namely, males 999,785, and females 969,224. Average density of population, 362 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·65; persons per town or village, 219; houses per square mile, 71·7; persons per house, 5·05. Classified according to sex and age, the population is composed as follows:—Under 15 years, boys 423,395, and girls 394,377; total children, 817,772, or 41·5 per cent.: 15 years and upwards, males 576,390, and females 574,847; total, 1,151,237, or 58·5 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 1,015,531, or 51·6 per cent. of the population; Hindus, 949,353, or 48·2 per cent.; Christians, 379; Brahmos, 38; and non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 3708.

The Muhammadans, who form a slight majority of the population, are stated to take precedence in point of social rank over the Hindus; but with the exception of an occasional convert from the lower Hindu castes, the faith of Islám has ceased to make any progress. Nearly the whole of the Musalmáns of Sylhet are Sunnís by sect. The principal mosque is that known as the Sháh Jalál Dargah in Sylhet town. There is also another mosque of some note at Baniáchang.

Among Hindus, the higher castes are fairly numerous, as also are the low castes found in the Gangetic delta; and generally speaking, as compared with the rest of Assam, there is a conspicuous absence of the castes predominant in the valley of the Brahmaputra or even in Northern Bengal. Bráhmans number 45,434; but the most numerous caste in the District is the Káyasth or clerkly class, who are returned as numbering 157,130, followed by the cognate caste of Kalitás, 12,210. The other high castes include the following—Ganak, 6505; Baidya, 3702; Rájput, 3658; and Vaisya, 634. Low-caste Hindus include the following—Chandál, 129,609; Dás or Halwa, 102,065; Náth or Jugí, 82,170; Pataní, 49,600; Málí, 40,412; Sháha or Sunrí, 36,422; Kaibartta; 35,407; Dom, 27,264; Dhobí, 26,330; Nápit, 21,063; Telí, 18,036; Mál, 16,084; Sutradhár, 11,280; Kumbhár, 8504; Goálá, 7319; Nat, 7091; Dhulí, 6344; Kámár, 5802; Káhár, 5567; Barhai, 4092; Muchi, 3784; Kapálí, 3181; Tántí, 3128; Juláha, 2872; and Kúrmí, 2001.

The majority of the Hindus are Vishnuites, amongst whom a new sect has recently sprung up locally known as Kisaríbhajan, and in Bengal as Kartábhajá. Its members acknowledge one God or Great Master

(*Kartá*), and, in Sylhet at least, are said to repudiate all caste distinctions, in practice as well as theory. A short notice of this sect will be found in article NADIYA DISTRICT (*ante*, vol. x. p. 133), and a detailed account of its tenets in *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ii. pp. 53–57. The most venerated Hindu temples in Sylhet are the following:—(1) Rúpnáth, in the hills above Jaintiapur. This temple is situated just beyond the boundaries of the District, within the jurisdiction of the Khási Hills; but it is greatly resorted to by people from Sylhet proper and the Jaintia plains. (2) Pháljur, in the *parganá* of the same name in the Jaintia plains. Human sacrifices were formerly offered at this temple, a practice which led to the annexation of the Jaintia plains in 1835, and their incorporation with Sylhet District. (3) The Jainteswarí temple at Jaintiapur. (4) Mahá-prabhu, in *parganá* Dháká-dakshin. (5) Siddheswar, in *parganá* Chápghát. (6) Nirmái Siva, in *parganá* Satgáon. (7) Básudeo. These seven are all shrines of great antiquity. (8) Bithalang Akhrá, a building of recent date, which is said to have been the largest and best endowed temple in the old Dacca Division. The religious ceremony of *nagar-kirtan* is described as being peculiar to Sylhet District. It consists of a torch-light procession in time of cholera outbreaks to propitiate Kálí, the wife of Siva, the All-Destroyer. A new religious sect has sprung up among the Kaibarttas, founded about eighty years ago by a certain Rám Krishna Gosáin, a member of that caste, who is traditionally said to have received his inspiration from a Musalmán saint. He established an *akhrá*, or religious community, in *parganá* Bimangal, where he now lies buried; and at the present day his disciples refuse to touch either cow-dung or the leaves of the *tulsí* plant, both of which things are held in veneration by orthodox Hindus, but abhorred by Muhammadans.

Of the aboriginal tribes, the Kukís have long been notorious for their attacks on the peaceable inhabitants of the plains, and have till recently proved themselves very troublesome along the Sylhet frontier. A few of them now reside within the limits of the District; the Census Report returns their number at 808. In some places they go about perfectly naked when at home, and only wear a piece of loose cloth when they leave their villages, not so much for the sake of decency as to avoid ridicule. The Khásis (2608 in number) are an athletic race of mountaineers inhabiting the hills to the north of the District. Many of them have adopted Hinduism, and have obtained admission among the Súdra castes. The Tipperahs in Sylhet number 3982. In some parts of the District they are classed as Vaishnavs, or Vishnuite religious mendicants, who abstain from eating flesh of any sort. The other Tipperahs of the District also call themselves Hindus, but eat flesh of all descriptions, with the exception of

that of the cow. They worship fourteen minor gods, and one Burí Debatá (Siva). The Hájangs, who come from the Gáro Hills, are also nominally Hindus, but will eat anything in the shape of meat. According to the Census Report, they number 585 in Sylhet, and are principally to be found in the north-western part of the District adjoining Maimansingh. With the exception of the Manipurís (13,434 in number), who are a thriving and industrious race, the social position of the hill tribes is very low. Their chief occupation is nomadic agriculture. The Tipperahs and Kukís especially follow the *júm* system of cultivation. A patch of forest land on a hill-side is cleared, the timber and brushwood being burnt on the spot. This is cultivated for three or four years, after which it is abandoned for another similar clearing.

Of the 379 Christians in Sylhet, 115 were Europeans or Eurasians, and 264 natives of India. By sect, 88 belonged to the Church of England, 80 were Roman Catholics, 16 were Presbyterians, and 195 belonged to other or unspecified sects.

Immigration and Emigration.—The principal immigration into Sylhet District is from Manipur, and to a small extent from Hill Tipperah State and the Khási and Jaintia Hills. The incomers generally live in separate villages by themselves, and do not amalgamate with the rest of the population. The great majority settle permanently in the District, but a few return to their original homes with their savings. The Manipurís in the town of Sylhet, of whom there is a large settlement, carry on a considerable trade in cloth manufactured by themselves. Those who are settled in the rural parts cultivate land on the skirts of the hills. They have done much towards clearing and reclaiming jungle lands; but as soon as the soil becomes fit for regular cultivation, they have, in many instances, been ousted by Bengálís. The Khási immigrants work as labourers and artisans, and also carry on a trade in oranges, cotton, honey, beeswax, and other products of their native hills. Labourers, but not in any great numbers, are imported from the Districts of Lower Bengal to work on the tea plantations. Many of them permanently settle in the District when the term of their contract has expired. There is no appreciable emigration from Sylhet.

Of the 8986 villages in the District, 5772 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 2457 between two and five hundred; 582 between five hundred and a thousand; 164 between one and two thousand; 10 between two and three thousand; and 1 between three and five thousand.

Occupation.—As regards occupation, the Census Report divides the male population into the following six classes:—(1) Professional and official class, 11,854; (2) domestic servants, etc., 4220; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 24,890; (4) agricul-

tural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 519,463; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 25,096; (6) unspecified and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 414,262.

Material Condition of the People.—The general mass of the people of Sylhet may be described as comparatively well off. The peculiar character of the Land Settlement, by conferring proprietary rights in the soil on the general body of the cultivators, has prevented the rise of large *zamíndárs*, and distributed widely the profits derived from the export of agricultural produce. Where not ruined by excessive floods, the soil is very fertile, and requires little labour in its cultivation. Besides inexhaustible supplies of rice, the District also produces jute; and the European demand for these two staple commodities has distinctly raised the material condition of the cultivating class in Sylhet, as throughout the neighbouring Districts of Eastern Bengal. The population generally are described as contented and independent.

The ordinary dress of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of a waistcloth (*dhuti*), a cotton shawl (*chádar*), a cotton head-dress (*págri*), and occasionally a coat (*pirán*) and a pair of shoes. The clothing of a common peasant consists simply of a waistcloth and cotton shawl, with the addition, in the case of Musalmáns, of a closely-fitting cotton skull-cap. A well-to-do shopkeeper generally occupies either a semi-brick-built house, or a substantial mat dwelling, consisting of from three to five rooms. The furniture of such a house is composed of a mat, a thick striped cotton carpet (*satranji*), a wooden bedstead (*takhtaposh*), bedding, a brass lamp, some tin or wooden boxes, brass and bell-metal cooking and eating utensils, baskets, earthen pots, etc. The common class of cultivators occupy huts built by themselves, with such furniture as common mats, poor bedding, a wooden box or two, a few brass utensils for cooking and eating, and some baskets, earthen pots, etc. The building materials are bricks, lime, clay, timber, bamboo, thatching grass, and bamboo mats. Many of the more prosperous peasant proprietors dwell in houses of much the same description as those of the shopkeeping class. The food of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of rice, salt, oil, fish, pulses, vegetables, spices, tamarinds, and milk occasionally. The food of the peasants does not differ from the above list, except in quality. Fish and fruit are very plentiful in Sylhet; and both these commodities are largely exported to other Districts. The Muhammadans eat meat of all kinds, except pork; the Hindus will only touch pigeons. *Pán* or betel-leaf, *supári* or betel-nut, and tobacco form a large item in the monthly expenditure of each family.

Urban and Rural Population.—Urban life is entirely undeveloped in Sylhet. The only place in the District with a population of more than 5000 is SYLHET TOWN, which is also the only municipality. Popula-

tion (1881) 14,407; municipal revenue (1881–82), including ferry tolls, £2052. Sylhet town conducts a large trade by water. The following twelve villages, mostly situated on the Surmá or Kusiára rivers, are also important trading marts:—(1) Chhaták, (2) Sonámganj, (3) Ajmeríganj, (4) Bálághanj, (5) Habíganj, (6) Nabíganj, (7) Bahádúrpur, (8) Karímganj, (9) Shamsherganj, (10) Gobindganj, (11) Mutíganj, (12) Dohálíá.

Agriculture.—The one staple crop cultivated throughout the District is rice, which yields four harvests in the year—(1) *áus*, sown on high lands in March, April, and May, and reaped in July and August; (2) *áman*, sown in March and April, and reaped in December and January; (3) *sáil*, sown in nurseries in May and June, transplanted in August and September, and reaped in November and December; (4) *bora*, sown in nurseries in October, transplanted in November and December, and reaped in April and May. The *áman* harvest furnishes by far the largest proportion of the food supply. The other crops include—mustard, linseed, and *til* or sesamum, grown as oil-seeds; *chiná*, a variety of millet, cultivated chiefly in the west of the District as a substitute for rice; several kinds of pulses, jute, sugar-cane; and cotton, grown in patches amid the jungle by the hill tribes. Out of the total area of the District, 5381 square miles (excluding river area), 3078 square miles, or 57 per cent., are thought to be either homestead land or under cultivation; and an additional 656 square miles, or 12 per cent., is capable of cultivation, leaving 1647 square miles, or 31 per cent., as uncultivable waste. About two-thirds of the total cultivated area is permenently under rice. The out-turn is estimated at from 11 to 17 cwts. of paddy or unhusked rice per acre. It is stated that the produce of the rice-fields has steadily diminished in recent years, owing to the damage caused by floods. Oxen are almost exclusively employed in agriculture, though a few buffaloes are used. The best are imported from Manipur. Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is largely applied for the cultivation of cold-weather crops. Oil-cake is applied only to sugar-cane lands. Irrigation is practised only for the *bora* rice crop, and rice-fields are never allowed to lie fallow for any length of time.

The greater part of the cultivated land is permanently settled, but the tenants of Government are for the most part not wealthy landholders like the *zamíndárs* of Bengal, but peasant proprietors known as *mirásdárs*. On the whole, the cultivators of Sylhet, owing partly to the fertility of the soil, and partly to the moderation of the assessment, occupy a position of comparative comfort. One of the chief peculiarities of the District is the smallness of the agricultural holdings. Perhaps in no other District of Bengal or Assam has the sub-division of landed property been carried to a greater extent. Anything above 5 acres is

considered to be a large holding for the support of a cultivator with a family; 3½ acres makes a comfortable farm; and anything below 1½ acres is a very small one, and barely affords subsistence. As an instance of the excessive sub-division of property, it may be mentioned that out of 78,000 estates on the rent-roll of the District in 1870, upwards of 20,000 paid a land-tax of not more than 2s. a year.

Intermediate tenures between the *mirásdár* and the actual cultivator are very rare. Where rice land is rented out, the rent varies from 2s. to 12s. an acre. Occupancy rights are almost unknown. Many of the poorer peasants employ themselves in cultivating the lands of others, in addition to looking after their own small holdings. In such cases, the men are paid in money, and not by a share of the produce, as is common in other Districts. Women and children are also employed in the fields. Wages of labour have greatly increased of late years. An ordinary day-labourer now receives 6d. per diem; his former wages were exactly one-half. An agricultural day-labourer now receives 4½d. a day, whereas formerly he was only paid 1½d. The rates of wages for skilled labour have also greatly risen.

Natural Calamities. — Both blight and flood are more dreaded by the cultivators of Sylhet than drought. Within the memory of the present generation, the winter of 1869–70 has been the only occasion when the local rainfall was so deficient as to affect the general harvest. Inundations, indeed, take place every year over a considerable tract of country; but it is thought that the flood water does more good than harm, by depositing fresh silt on the exhausted fields. There is some local demand for embankments, but their construction would be a matter of doubtful advantage. During 1866–67, the year of the Orissa famine, the price of rice rose to 10s. 8d. a cwt. The people mainly depend upon the *áman* harvest for their food supply; and if that were to fail, the other rice harvests would be inadequate to make up the deficiency. In ordinary years, Sylhet is able to export much of its surplus grain to Bengal, Cachar, and the Khási Hills. In good years, the export of paddy or unhusked rice is estimated at 2½ million cwts.

Trade, etc.—Sylhet is celebrated for several special manufactures. The Manipurí women settled in the District weave cotton cloths called *Manipuri khesh*, also handkerchiefs and mosquito curtains, of fine quality and tastefully embroidered with silk. The Manipurí men are the best carpenters in the country. At the village of Lashkarpur there is a small colony of Musalmáns, who inlay iron weapons with silver and brass scroll-work. But the specialities of Sylhet, known throughout India, are *sítalpátí* mats, iron and shell carving, *pukálá* work or lac inlaid with feathers and talc, and pottery. All these industries are

pursued with much skill and elegance, and the artisans command large prices for their wares. Local trade is conducted chiefly at permanent markets, situated on the banks of the large rivers. The external commerce of Sylhet with Bengal is very considerable. The Bengal registration returns for 1880–81 show a total export from Sylhet valued at £1,287,431, against imports valued at £890,967. These figures unavoidably include some portion of the trade of other Districts, which is merely through traffic, but at the same time they omit the rice, etc. of Sylhet exported to those Districts. The chief items on the export side are—tea, 13,426,880 lbs., valued at £1,007,016, evidently including much grown in Cachar; lime and limestone, 1,065,429 *maunds*, valued at £115,559, almost entirely from the Khási Hills; rice and paddy, 165,415 *maunds*, valued at £16,972; vegetables, £34,423; oil-seeds, £17,680; fruits and nuts, £2479; jute, £452; and mats, £10,357. The imports include—European piece-goods, £289,498; salt, £94,194; sugar, £66,662; tobacco, £43,654; and spices, £59,471. The tea and most of the cotton goods are carried by the river steamers; all the heavy commodities go in country boats. Almost the only means of communication is by water. Until recently, there were no regular roads outside the limits of Sylhet town. The aggregate length of the navigable rivers is returned at 800 miles.

Tea Cultivation occupies a subordinate position in Sylhet, as compared with the neighbouring District of Cachar. The tea-plant was first discovered growing wild in 1856, and the oldest garden now existing dates from the following year. Ever since the season of excessive speculation that reached its crisis in 1865, the business of tea cultivation and manufacture in Sylhet has improved steadily and rapidly year by year. In 1875, returns furnished by 23 gardens showed a total area of 26,612 acres taken up for tea, of which 4446 acres were under mature plant; the aggregate out-turn was 470,748 lbs., or an average of 111 lbs. per acre under mature plant. In 1874, the average monthly number of labourers employed was 3109, of whom 462 had been imported under contract from Bengal. By 1881, the number of gardens had increased to 91, with a total area of 66,333 acres taken up for tea, of which 15,990 acres were under mature plant, yielding an aggregate out-turn of 3,354,637 lbs., or an average of 210 lbs. per acre. Average number of labourers employed, 21,806. These figures show that the number of gardens has quadrupled within a period of six years; while the out-turn of tea has multiplied itself by seven times, while the number of labourers employed has also increased seven-fold.

Administration.—The fiscal and executive administration of the District is vested in a Deputy Commissioner, who must be a member of the covenanted service. The judicial department is entrusted to a

Civil and Sessions Judge, whose criminal jurisdiction extends also over Cachar. For the ordinary work of administration, Sylhet is divided into 4 Sub-divisions, each under an Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner, with the powers of a Magistrate and Collector. These Sub-divisions are further divided into 16 *thánás* or police circles, as follows:—(1) Head-quarters Sub-division, with the 6 *thánás* of Sylhet, Balâganj, Rájnagar, Nawákhálí, Hingajiya, and Kánairghát; (2) Karímganj Sub-division, with the 2 *thánás* of Karímganj and Jaldhup; (3) Habíganj Sub-division, with the 4 *thánás* of Habiganj, Nabiganj, Madhabpur, and Baniáchang; and (4) Sonámganj Sub-division, with the 4 *thánás* of Sonámganj, Derai, Chhátak, and Dharmapása. In 1882 the number of magisterial and revenue courts was 17, and of civil courts 11; there were 5 covenanted civil servants stationed in the District, of whom some were engaged on settlement work.

The revenue and civil expenditure of the District have both rapidly increased of late years. In 1870–71, the total revenue of the District amounted to £88,120, against an expenditure of £38,406. Within eleven years, or by 1881–82, the District revenue had risen to £164,441, and the expenditure to £77,170. While this increase in the general revenue is exhibited, the receipts from the land-tax have remained almost stationary, having only increased from £48,761 in 1870–71 to £51,187 in 1881–82. Of the other chief items of revenue, that from stamps has increased from £16,263 to £32,773, and excise from £8679 to £17,224.

The regular District and town police force in 1881 consisted of a total strength of 419 officers and men, maintained at an aggregate cost of £9100. In addition, a force of 312 officers and men is maintained for the defence of the frontier, costing £3400 in 1881; and a body of *chaukidárs* or rural police, numbering 4376 men, supported by doles from the landholders, or by lands held rent-free. In 1881, the total number of criminal cases investigated was 7839, and 5462 persons were put upon their trial, of whom 65 per cent. were convicted, being 1 person convicted of an offence of some kind or another to every 554 of the population. The jail statistics for that year show a daily average of 554 prisoners, being 1 person always in jail to every 3554 of the population.

Until within recent years, education had not made much progress in Sylhet. But the introduction of Sir G. Campbell's reforms in 1872, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules was extended to the *páthsálás* or village schools, has acted as a great stimulus to primary instruction. In the year 1870–71, there were only 15 schools in the District, attended by 879 pupils. By the close of 1881–82 these numbers had risen to 347 schools and 13,107 pupils, showing 1 school to every 15·5 square miles, and 6·7 pupils to every thousand of the

population. These figures do not include the uninspected indigenous schools, which are numerous in Sylhet. The Census Report for 1881 returned 18,037 boys and 176 girls as under instruction, besides 42,202 males and 576 females able to read and write but not under instruction. The total expenditure on education in 1881–82 amounted to £3630, of which Government contributed £2112. The principal educational institution is the Government English School at Sylhet, which is described as the most successful of its class in Assam. In 1881–82 it was attended by 485 pupils, of whom 95 were Musalmáns. To promote Muhammadan education, this school receives an annual grant of £80 from the Mohsin endowment. The Normal School, founded in 1873, was attended in 1881–82 by 35 teachers, whose expenses are entirely defrayed by Government.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sylhet is excessively damp and trying to Europeans. The rainy season generally lasts from April to October, and the remaining months are regarded as constituting the cold weather. The rainfall is very heavy, and has the effect of tempering the heat. The maximum temperature is about 96° F., the minimum 46°. During the twenty-five years ending 1881, the average annual rainfall was 155·68 inches, distributed as follows:—January to May, 42·33 inches; June to September, 103·55 inches; October to December, 9·8 inches. The earthquake of January 10, 1869, of which the centre of disturbance was in Cachar, was severely felt also in Sylhet. The church and other buildings in the town were considerably damaged; and in many parts of the District the surface of the ground was rent into fissures, and the channels of the larger rivers were sensibly altered. Another severe shock was felt in October 1882.

The chief epidemic disease in Sylhet is malarious fever. Dysentery and diarrhœa are also prevalent, as well as many cutaneous disorders; outbreaks of both cholera and small-pox are common. In 1881, out of the total number of deaths reported to the police, nearly one-half were assigned to cholera. The general returns of vital statistics are as yet untrustworthy. The registration system in selected areas during 1881 showed a death-rate of 23·59 per thousand in the urban area, which is coincident with the limits of Sylhet town; and 43·62 per thousand in the rural area. Throughout the District, no regard is paid to the most ordinary rules of conservancy; and the sanitary condition even of Sylhet town is most deplorable. Drinking water is obtained from rivers and tanks, rarely from wells. There are five charitable dispensaries in the District assisted by Government contributions, and five others supported entirely by local funds. [For further information regarding Sylhet, see *The Statistical Account of Assam*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. ii. pp. 259–344 (London, Trübner & Co., 1879); *A Descriptive Account of Assam*, by W. Robinson (1841); *Report on the*

Province of Assam, by Mr. A. J. Moffat Mills (Calcutta, 1854); the *Assam Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Assam Government.]

Sylhet. — Head-quarters Sub-division of Sylhet District, Assam. Population (1881) 760,977, residing in 3047 towns and villages, and occupying 156,125 houses. Muhammadans number 413,250; Hindus, 314,414; and 'others,' 3313. This Sub-division comprises the 6 *thánás* or police circles of Sylhet, Balágani, Rájnagar, Nawákhálí, Hingajiya, and Kánairghát. In 1884 it contained 4 civil and 4 criminal courts, and a regular police force of 96 officers and men.

Sylhet. — Chief town in the District of the same name, Assam; situated on the right or north bank of the Surmá river, in lat. 24° 53′ 22″ N., and long. 91° 54′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 14,407, namely, males 8587, and females 5820. Hindus number 7337; Muhammadans, 7001; and 'others,' 69. Municipal income (1881–82), £2052. The houses of the European residents are scattered along the river bank for a distance of about 2 miles, and on *tilás* or hillocks at the back of the town. Besides the usual public offices, there is a handsome church. The native quarter lies behind, overgrown with vegetation, and intersected by open sewers. The river water is commonly used for drinking purposes. The mosque of Sháh Jalál, a *fákir* whose miraculous powers contributed greatly to the Musalmán conquest of the country, attracts pilgrims from great distances. There is a small colony of native Christians, converted by a Protestant Mission established in 1850. No missionary is now resident. Sylhet town is a centre of river trade, and also of some little manufacturing industry. The chief exports are rice, cotton, hides, horns, *sítalpátí* mats, leaf-umbrellas, ornaments, etc.; the imports are cotton goods, salt, hardware, sugar, pulses, spices, silk, etc. The principal articles of manufacture are *sítalpátí* mats, ornaments of carved ivory and shell, *morás* or bamboo stools, and *petárás* or trunks for clothes made of cane. The Muhammadan festival of the *'Id*, at the time of the *Muharram*, is marked by a fair lasting for two days, when toys, cheap ornaments, and sweetmeats are sold. The site of the town is placed on the land-roll of the District as a revenue-free estate, called *Kasbá Sylhet*. The claim to exemption, which has never been formally recognised by Government, is based upon a *sanad* or grant from a Mughal Emperor of Delhi. In 1869, Sylhet was visited by a violent shock of earthquake, which did great damage to the church and other buildings.

Synthia.—Town in Bírbhúm District, Bengal. Station on the East Indian Railway, 119 miles distant from Howrah, and a rapidly rising place; connected with Surí by a good road.

Syriam (or *Than-lyin*).—Township in Hanthawadi District, Lower

Burma. Comprises ten revenue circles. Population (1881) 96,170; gross revenue, £94,539. Head-quarters at SYRIAM TOWN.

Syriam (or *Than-lyin*).—Old town in Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 16° 42′ 30″ N., and long. 96° 21′ 5″ E., on the left bank of the Pegu river, and about 3 miles from its mouth. Population (1881) 1284. Burmese traditions allege that Syriam was founded in 587 B.C. by Ze-ya-the-na, and that about fifty years later it was called Than-lyin, after a usurper who dethroned the son of Ze-ya-the-na. Little or nothing is known of the place from that time until the beginning of the 17th century. Towards the close of the previous century, the King of Arakan, taking advantage of the quarrels between the Kings of Taung-ngu, Ava, and Pegu, and the destruction of the last-named monarchy by the first, obtained possession of Pegu, aided by the Portuguese under Philip de Brito y Nicote, to whom, as a reward, was given the town of Than-lyin. In a short time the King of Arakan found reason to regret his liberality; but his endeavours to drive out the Portuguese were unsuccessful. In 1613, Than-lyin was besieged and captured by the King of Ava. Nicote was impaled alive, and all the Portuguese whose lives were spared were sent as slaves to the capital, where a few of their descendants exist to this day.

In 1631, the Dutch were allowed to establish a factory at Than-lyin, which they retained till 1677, according to Valentyn; but Dalrymple states that both English and Dutch were expelled some years earlier. The date of the foundation of the English factory is not known. In 1698, however, it was re-established, and Mr. Bowyear placed in charge by the authorities at Madras. In 1740, the Peguans or Talaings expelled the Burmese and captured Than-lyin, without harming the English or other residents. In 1743 the Burmese retook the town, but held it for three days only, when the Peguans returned, expelled the Burmese, and burnt the English factory to the ground. Nothing now remains of the once flourishing Portuguese, Dutch, and English factories, except the substantial ruins of an old church situated outside the old walls, some tombs, and the foundations of a few masonry houses.

A full description of the church (built by Monseigneur Nerini, the second Vicar-Apostolic of Ava and Pegu, and a member of the Barnabite Mission) is given in the *Life of Monseigneur G. M. Percoto*, Missionary to the kingdoms of Ava and Pegu, and Bishop of Massulis. The Barnabite Mission was established in 1722, and continued to flourish till about 1754. In 1756, the Bishop was murdered by the Burmese conqueror Alaung-paya, then besieging Than-lyin, because he was suspected of complicity with the Peguans. From that year till 1760, the mission remained destitute, and was then removed to Rangoon.

The Myo-uk or Governor of Than-lyin during the first Burmese war of 1824–25 was Maung Sat, whose sister was married to Badun-min,

fourth son of Alaung-paya. After the capture of Rangoon by the British troops, he collected a considerable force, and commenced fortifying Than-lyin, and erecting works to command the entrance to the river. On the 4th August 1824, a body of about 600 men was sent to dislodge him. The storming party was received with a sharp fire, but the Burmese evacuated the place before the escalade. The British did not retain possession of the town, and it was occupied in December by a portion of the Burmese army which had been investing Rangoon. But on the 11th of February 1825, Than-lyin was once more occupied by the British. Shortly after the signing of the treaty of Yandabú (February 1826), the Talaings, under Maung Sat, made an attempt to regain their ancient kingdom. They were joined by the Karens; and their leader, the Myo-uk of Than-lyin, assumed the title of king. The British remained strictly neutral. After some fighting in and round Rangoon, a force arrived from Ava, and the Peguans retreated to Than-lyin; and finally, in 1827, the leaders escaped to Tenasserim. Since this event, nothing of importance has occurred in the town

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Ta-da.—River in Prome and Tharawadi Districts, Lower Burma.—*See* TAUNG-NYO.

Tadiándamol.—Highest peak in the chain of the Western Ghâts in the territory of Coorg, 5729 feet above the sea. Lat. 12° 13′ N., long. 75° 40′ E. Distance from Merkára, 30 miles. The ascent of 5 miles from the Nalknad palace is not difficult. The view from the summit is magnificent.

Tádpatri.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Area, 591 square miles. Population (1881) 98,964, namely, males 50,062, and females 48,902; occupying 18,771 houses, in 2 towns and 94 villages. Hindus number 88,946; Muhammadans, 9831; and Christians, 187. The country is exceedingly flat and monotonous except on the eastern boundary, where a low, flat-topped range of hills separates it from Cuddapah and Karnúl Districts. The Penner flows through the centre of the *táluk*, and on either side of it are rich plains of black cotton soil. There is hardly any red soil. Cotton is the principal crop; but a fine kind of *cholum* (Sorghum vulgare) is also largely grown. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 64 men. Land revenue, £16,215.

Tádpatri (*Tadputry*, *Tádaparti*).—Town in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency, head-quarters of Tádpatri *táluk*, and an important station on the Madras Railway; situated in lat. 14° 55′ 50″ N., and

long. 78° 2′ 25″ E., on the right bank of the Penner (Ponnaiyár). Population (1881) 8585, occupying 1759 houses. Hindus number 5972; Muhammadans, 2559; and Christians, 54. Thriving trade in silk, cotton, and indigo. The town was founded by Rámalingam Nayudu, one of the Vijayanagar governors, 400 years ago. He also built the fine temple dedicated to Ráma Iswara. Another temple (dedicated to Chintáráya) on the river bank was built by Timma Nayudu. These two temples are elaborately decorated with sculptures representing the adventures of Krishna, Ráma, and other mythological personages. Among the bas-reliefs is a figure holding a Grecian bow. The temple on the river bank is by far the finer, but was never finished. The *gopura* of the other temple was struck by lightning about thirty years ago, and split in two. After the battle of Tálikot, the country round Tádpatri was subdued by the forces of the Kutab Sháhi dynasty, and a Muhammadan governor was appointed. Afterwards, the town was captured by Morári Ráo, and still later by Haidar Alí. The site of Tádpatri lies low, and part of the town is frequently inundated. The main street is narrow and straight, with substantially built houses.

Tádri.—Port in North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 14° 31′ 30″ N., long. 74° 24′ 2″. Situated at the mouth of the Agnashino river. Anchorage good, and protected by hills from violent winds. The salt manufactured at Sanikata, 2 miles inland, finds an outlet here. Tádri is also frequented by pilgrims who pass to the shrine at Gokarn, situated 3 miles north-west. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1881–82—imports, £4565; exports, £7808. In 1881–82, the trade was valued at £14,841—imports, £8438; exports, £6403.

Taingapatam.—Town in Travancore State, Madras Presidency; situated on the coast at the mouth of the Taingapatam river. Lat. 8° 14′ N., long. 77° 14′ E. The population here and in the neighbourhood comprises (according to Thornton) many native Christians of the Syrian Church.

Tájpur.—Sub-division of Darbhangah District, Bengal, lying between 25° 28′ 15″ and 26° 2′ N. lat., and between 85° 30′ and 86° 4′ E. long. Area, 764 square miles; number of villages, 1173; houses, 94,119. Population (1881), males 367,310, and females 388,633; total, 755,943. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 695,528; Muhammadans, 60,105; Christians, 166; and Kols, 144. Average density of population, 989 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·54; persons per village, 644; houses per square mile, 134; persons per house, 8·9. This Sub-division consists of the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Tájpur, Nagarbasti, and Dalsinghsarái. In 1881 it contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, a police force of 48 men, and 897 village watchmen.

Tájpur.—Head-quarters of the Tájpur Sub-division of Darbhangah

District, Bengal; situated on the Dalsinghsarái road, 24 miles from Muzaffarpur, in lat. 25° 51′ 33″ N., and long. 85° 43′ E. Population (1881) 1384. Dispensary, school, and *munsif's* court; inhabited chiefly by court officials, *mukhtars*, etc. The river Bálan, which flows out of the Jamwárí, passes the village on the west.

Takht-i-Suláimán (*Solomon's Seat*).—Mountain in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Northern India, close to the city of Srínagar, on the eastern side. Described by Thornton as a mass of eruptive trap, situated in lat. 34° 4′ N., and long. 74° 53′ E. On the summit stands a massive Buddhist temple, called by the Hindus *Sankar Achárya;* it was built by Jaloka, son of Asoka, about 220 B.C., but is now converted into a mosque. Elevation above sea-level, 6950 feet.

Takht-i-Suláimán.—Principal peak of the Suláimán mountains, on the frontier between the Punjab and Afghánistán. Has two separate summits, respectively 11,317 and 11,076 feet above sea-level. Stands nearly due west of Dera Ismáil Khán. A barren and rugged mountain, the sides consisting of precipitous cliffs. The summit of the Takht-i-Suláimán consists of a long, narrow valley, about eight miles long, and varying from one to two miles in width, enclosed between parallel ridges of rugged and precipitous limestone rock, seamed and scarred with deep indentations where the drainage has worked its way during the course of ages to the plains below. About two miles from the highest peak, the northern summit, called locally the 'Abashta chuka,' or juniper point, or sometimes the 'Kaisargarh,' is a level space, covering about half a square mile, called Maidán; this is the water-parting. From here the drainage finds its way through precipitous gorges both north and south along the line of the enclosed valley. The whole mountain is thickly covered with two classes of pine—the *chilgoza* (Pinus Gerardiana, or edible pine) and the Pinus excelsa. At Maidán are two dry tanks, said to be full of water immediately after the rainy season, and generally to hold a good supply all through the subsequent winter.—(Major T. H. Holdich.)

Takhtpur.—Town in Biláspur *tahsíl*, Biláspur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 8′ N., and long. 81° 54′ 30″ E., on the Mandla road, 20 miles west of Biláspur town. Founded about 1690 by Takht Singh, Rájá of Ratanpur, to whom are attributed the remains of a brick palace, and a temple of Mahádeva. Population (1881) 2133, namely, Hindus, 1773; Kabírpanthís, 136; Satnámís, 31; Muhammadans, 173; and non-Hindu aborigines, 20. Good school, well-attended weekly market, and police post.

Táki.—Town and municipality in the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 35′ 27″ N., and long. 88° 57′ 50″ E., on the Jamuná river, in the Basurhát Sub-division. Population (1881) 5120, namely, Hindus, 4313; Muhammadans, 795; and 'others,' 12.

Municipal income (1883–84), £228; incidence of taxation, 1o⅝d. per head. Police force, 16 men. A boat-halting station, and the centre of a considerable trade in rice. Branch dispensary.

Taki (*Tsekia*). — Village in Gujránwála District, Punjab. — *See* ASARUR.

Takwára.—Town or cluster of villages in Dera Ismáil Kháń District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 9′ N., and long. 70° 40′ E., 27 miles north-west of Dera Ismáil Khán town. Population (1881) 5259. Purely agricultural community of Gandapurs and Játs. Supplies procurable; water usually derived from hill streams, and always to be obtained by digging from 12 to 14 feet in the bed of a ravine.

Tálá.—Town in Jessor District, Bengal. An old police station, but at present a police outpost, on the Kabadak. Centre of local trade, and large sugar mart.

Talágang.—*Tahsíl* of Jehlam (Jhelum) District, Punjab; comprising the whole western portion of the District, and intersected by the spurs of the Salt Range. Area, 1247 square miles, with 83 towns and villages, 11,745 houses, and 21,046 families. Total population (1881) 94,874, namely, males 49,716, and females 45,158; average density of population, 79 persons per square mile. Muhammadans number 86,022; Hindus, 7284; Sikhs, 1551; and Christians, 17. Of the 83 towns and villages, 24 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 24 between five hundred and a thousand; 22 between one and two thousand; 11 between two and five thousand; and 2 between five and ten thousand. Principal crops—wheat, *bájra*, gram, *jowár*, barley, *moth*, and cotton. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £11,149. The only local administrative officer is a *tálukdár*, presiding over 1 civil and 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 42 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 71.

Talágang.—Town and municipality in Jehlam (Jhelum) District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Talágang *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 32° 55′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 28′ E., 80 miles north-west of Jehlam town. Population (1881) 6236, namely, Muhammadans, 4174; Hindus, 1205; Sikhs, 845; and Christians, 12. Number of houses, 684. Municipal income (1883–84), £238, or an average of 9d. per head. The town was founded by an Awán chieftain, about the year 1625; it has ever since remained the seat of local administration under the Awáns, the Sikhs, and the British. It is healthily situated on a dry plateau, well drained by ravines. Extensive trade in grain, the staple product of the neighbourhood. Manufacture of shoes worked with tinsel, worn by the Punjab women, and largely exported to distant places. Striped cotton cloth (*súsi*) is also made in considerable quantities, both for home use and for exportation. *Tahsíl* and police station, situated in an old mud fort, the former residence of the Sikh *kárdár*.

Talágang was formerly a small cantonment, which was abolished in 1882. School, branch dispensary.

Tálágáon.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar.—*See* TALEGAON.

Talája.—Walled town in the Native State of Bhaunagar, Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 21° 21′ 15″ N., long. 72° 4′ 30″ E. Situated about 31 miles south of Bhaunagar town, on the slope of a hill crowned by a Jain temple. Population (1881) 3109. Taylor, in his *Sailing Directory*, describes Talája as 'a small steep hill of conical form, about 400 feet above the sea, and rising out of a level plain.' On the top of the hill is 'a Hindu temple, with tanks of excellent water; the hill has caves excavated in the solid rock, where formerly the pirates of these parts dwelt, as recently as the year 1823.'

Talakádu.—Ancient city in Mysore District, Mysore State, Madras Presidency.—*See* TALKAD.

Tala-Káveri.—Source of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, on the Brahmagiri hill, one of the peaks of the Western Ghâts, in the west of Coorg, Southern India.—*See* TALE-KAVERI.

Talamba.—Town, municipality, and ruins in Sarái Sidhu *tahsíl*, Múltán (Mooltan) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 31′ N., and long. 72° 17′ E., 2 miles from the modern left bank of the Rávi, and 51 miles north-east of Múltán city. Population (1881) 2231, namely, Hindus, 1282; Muhammadans, 947; and Sikhs, 2. Number of houses, 369. Municipal income (1883–84), £114, or an average of 1s. per head. A place of purely antiquarian interest, the present village being built of bricks taken from an old fortress, 1 mile south. The stronghold once possessed great strength, while its antiquity is vouched for by the size of the bricks, described by General Cunningham as 'similar to the oldest in the walls and ruins of Múltán.' Identified with a town of the Malli, conquered by Alexander the Great during his campaign in the Punjab, and also as the place where he crossed the Rávi. Said also to have been taken by Mahmúd of Ghazní. Timúr plundered the town, and massacred the inhabitants, but left the citadel untouched. The site was abandoned, according to tradition, in consequence of a change of course of the Rávi, which cut off the water-supply about the time of Mahmúd Langa (1510 to 1525 A.D.). General Cunningham describes the ruins as consisting of an open city, protected on the south by a lofty fortress 1000 feet square. The outer rampart of earth has a thickness of 200 feet and a height of 20 feet; and a second rampart of equal elevation stands upon its summit. Both were originally faced with large bricks. The modern village contains a police station, branch post-office, school, and *sarái*, all located in one building. A quarter of a mile south-west of the town is an encamping ground, two good wells, and a supply house.

Talaparamba.—Town in Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TALIPARAMBA.

Tálbehat. — Ancient town in Lálitpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated at the base of a hill, in lat. 25° 2′ 50″ N., and long. 78° 28′ 55″ E., 26 miles north of Lálitpur town. Derives its name from a large tank or lake (*tál*) which supplies water for irrigation to several of the neighbouring villages. It is formed by the natural interposition of the hill, a rocky range 800 feet in height, whose proper outlets have been artificially dammed; and it covers an area of at least a mile square. Extensive masonry battlements crown the hill-top, and enclose a fort now in ruins. Beneath, the town spreads out an orderly array of good brick houses, many flat-roofed, and apparently indicating a large population. On a nearer view, however, many of the buildings are found to be ruinous and vacant, the people having deserted their homes in large numbers, especially during the famine year of 1869, and emigrated to neighbouring Native States. Population (1881) 5293, namely, Hindus, 4920; Muhammadans, 264; Jains, 107; and Christians, 2. Number of houses, 1141. Many trees stand in and out amongst the houses, thus increasing the apparent size of the town. Around the whole lake, and especially along its northern border, runs a green fringe of cultivated fields; but the remainder of the surrounding country, seen from the hill, stretches like a vast undulating jungle, interspersed with occasional conical heights. Rice is grown in a swamp fed from the lake. Small trade in grain and cotton. *Bázár;* handsome well; old fort demolished by Sir Hugh Rose in 1857. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Tálcher.—One of the petty States of Orissa, Bengal, lying between 20° 52′ 30″ and 21° 18′ N. lat., and between 84° 57′ and 85° 17′ 45″ E. long. Area, 399 square miles. Population (1881) 35,590. Bounded on the north by Pal Lahára, on the east by Dhenkánal, and on the south and west by Angul estate. The chief feature in this State is a coal-field, of which a thorough examination was made in 1875. It was then reported that no seam of workable thickness and fairly good quality exists; that a final and thorough exploration could only be effected at a considerable expense; that the local consumption would never suffice to support a proper mining establishment; and that, with the costly long land carriage, no class of coal equal to Ráníganj could compete successfully at the Orissa ports with coal sent from Calcutta by sea. The project for utilizing the Tálcher coal-beds has therefore been abandoned for the present. Iron and lime are also found near the banks of the Bráhmaní river, which separates Tálcher on the east from Pal Lahára and Dhenkánal. Small quantities of gold are found by washing the sand of the river, but little profit accrues to the workers. Population (1881) 35,590, namely, males 18,829, and females 16,761,

residing in 261 villages, and 7693 houses. Hindus number 35,466; Muhammadans, 121; and Christians, 3. Proportion of males in total population, 52·9 per cent.; average density of population, 89·20 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 0·65; persons per village, 236; houses per square mile, 19·37; persons per house, 4·6. The only town of any size in the State is Tálcher, the residence of the Rájá, situated on the right bank of the Bráhmaní, in lat. 20° 57′ 20″ N., and long. 85° 16′ 11″ E., and containing about 500 houses. Only one village in the State has a population of from 2000 to 3000 souls. Tálcher is said to have been founded about 500 years ago by the son of an Oudh Rájá, who forcibly ejected the savage tribe which had previously inhabited it. The title of Mahendrá Bahádur was bestowed upon the late chief as a reward for services rendered during the Angul disturbances in 1847. The estimated revenue of the Rájá is £5193; the tribute to the British Government, £103. The Rájá's militia consists of 615, and the police force of 267 men. Fifteen schools are scattered through the State.

Táldandá.—Canal in Cuttack District, Bengal, connecting Cuttack city with the main branch of the Mahánadi river within tidal range. It is intended both for navigation and for irrigation; total length, 52 miles. The lower reaches are not yet finished. The canal, when completed, will end at Shámágol on the Mahánadi, about 8 miles in a direct line from the sea. It starts from the right flank of the Mahánadi weir at Jobrá, skirts the east side of the city of Cuttack for a mile and half, then turns eastward, and runs midway between the Kátjurí and the Mahánadi for 4 miles; thence to Bírbátí, it keeps nearly parallel with the latter river, at a distance of from half a mile to one mile. At Bírbátí, a branch canal is thrown out to MACHHGAON, at the mouth of the Devi. The Táldandá Canal, in its first reach to Bírbátí, has a bottom width of 64 feet, with slopes of 2 to 1, and a fall of 6 inches in the mile. With a maximum depth of 8 feet of water, the discharge is calculated at 1460 cubic feet per second, half of which will be carried off by the Máchhgáon Canal, leaving 730 feet per second to the lower reaches of the parent canal. The Táldandá Canal, with its offshoot the Máchhgáon, is designed to irrigate 155,000 acres of the central delta.

Talegáon.—Town in Chándur *táluk*, Amráoti District, Berar. Lat. 21° 5′ N., long. 78° 4′ E. Population (1881) 5506, namely, Hindus, 4639; Muhammadans, 864; and Jains, 3. The town, which is now greatly decayed, contains the ruins of many fine buildings. The *tahsíli*, formerly here, has been removed to Chándur, a station on the Nágpur branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.

Talegáon Dábhára.—Town in the Máwal Sub-division of Poona (Puná) District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 18° 43′ 10″ N.,

and long. 73° 43′ 30″ E., 20 miles north-west from Poona city. Population (1881) 4900, namely, Hindus, 4282; Muhammadans, 485; Jains, 126; Christians, 5; and Pársís, 2. Talegáon is a town belonging to the Dábháde family, who rose to great importance during the time of the Peshwá Bálájí Vishwanáth, in the person of Khandá Ráo Dábháde, the Peshwá's commander-in-chief in 1716. In 1779, Talegáon was the furthest point reached by the English army which came to restore Raghunáth Ráo as Peshwá, and made the capitulation of Wadgáon, about 3 miles to the west. On the 11th January 1779, the force of 2600 British troops threw their heavy guns into the large Talegáon tank, and burning their stores, left Talegáon at dead of night. In 1817, five days after the battle of Kirki, two brothers of the name of Vaughan, one a Major in the Madras Native Infantry, and the other of the Marine Service, while on their way from Bombay to Poona, were seized and hanged by the road-side. Their graves are 20 yards off the road. Talegáon lapsed to Government on the death of the last holder, who was a female. Municipal income (1883–84), £3931; incidence of taxation, 1s. 10¾d. per head. Arrangements have been made for building a reservoir to the west of the town, which will provide an ample supply of pure drinking water. Talegáon is a station on the south-east extension of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Post-office, girls' school, and dispensary. Brisk oil manufacture.

Talegáon Dhamdhera.—Town in the Sirúr Sub-division of Poona District, Bombay; situated in lat. 18° 40′ N., and long. 74° 13′ E., 20 miles north-east of Poona city. Population (1881) 3620. The Dhamdhera family has long held the foremost place in Talegáon, and has given its name to the town to distinguish it from TALEGAON DABHARA in the Máwal Sub-division of Poona District (*vide supra*). Municipal income (1883–84), £70; incidence of taxation, 3½d. per head. Weekly market on Mondays. Annual fair in February–March, attended by about 3000 people. Post-office and dispensary.

Tale-kaveri.—Source of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, on the Brahmagiri hill, one of the peaks of the Western Ghát, in the west of Coorg, Southern India. Lat. 12° 23′ 10″ N., long. 75° 34′ 10″ E. Distance from Bhagamundala at the foot of the hill, 4 miles; and from Merkara, 30 miles. Near the source is a temple of great sanctity, annually frequented by thousands of pilgrims. The chief bathing festival is in *Tulá-másа* (October–November), when, according to local legend, the goddess Gangá herself resorts underground to the all-purifying stream. On this occasion, every Coorg house is expected to send a representative; and the total attendance is estimated at 15,000. The temple is endowed by Government with £232 a year.

Tálgáon (or '*Tank Town*').—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 12 miles east by north of Sítápur town, and 8 miles south of

Láharpur. Derives its name from the numerous *jhíls* or *táls* in the immediate neighbourhood. Founded by Khánzádas in the 11th century. Population (1881) 1854, chiefly Muhammadans. The principal landholders are Khánzádas (Shaikhs) and Kirmáni Sayyids. Site good, and well wooded. Annual fair, attended by 10,000 people. Three mosques; Government school. Annual value of *bázár* sales, £2500.

Tálikot.—Town in Muddebihál Sub-division, Bijápur District, Bombay Presidency; situated 60 miles north-east of Kaládgi town, in lat. 10° 28′ 20″ N., and long. 76° 21′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 5325, namely, Hindus 3965, and Muhammadans 1360. The battle of Tálikot was fought on the right bank of the Kistna, about 30 miles south of Tálikot town, on 25th January 1565, in which the power of the Hindu empire of Vijayanagar was destroyed by a confederacy of the Musalmán kings of the Deccan. The battle was named after Tálikot, as it was the head-quarters whence the allies marched to meet the Vijayanagar army.

Taliparamba.—Town in Cherakal *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 12° 2′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 24′ 16″ E., 15 miles north-east of Cannanore (Kannúr). Population (1881) 8363; namely, Hindus, 5900; Muhammadans, 2434; and Christians, 29; number of houses, 1294. Sub-magistrate's station. Contains a brass-roofed temple. Numerous curious caverns cut of laterite rock in the neighbourhood.

Talkad.—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore State.—*See* NARSIPUR.

Talkad (or *Talkádu*, *Talakádu*).—Ancient city in Narsipur *táluk*, Mysore District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 12° 11′ N., and long. 77° 5′ E., on the left bank of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, 28 miles by road south-east of Mysore city. Since 1868, no longer the head-quarters of the *táluk*. Population (1871) 2882, almost all Hindus; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. The origin of Talkad is lost in antiquity. The name is translated into Sanskrit as *Dala-vana*. The first authentic fact of history is that Hari Varma, a king of the Ganga line, fixed his capital here in the year 288 A.D. A king of the same dynasty strongly fortified the city in the 6th century. At the close of the 9th century, the Gangas succumbed to the Cholas; but Talkad reappears a hundred years later as the capital of the Hoysala Ballála line. Subsequently it passed into the hands of a feudatory of the Vijayanagar king, from whom it was conquered in 1634 by the Hindu Rájá of Mysore. The last Ráni of Talkad imprecated a curse upon the city 'that it should become sand,' and threw herself into the Káveri. At the present day, the buildings of the old city are completely buried beneath hills of sand, stretching nearly a mile in length. These sand-hills advance at the rate of about 10 feet a year, and are said to cover about 30 temples, of which the topmost pagodas of two still project

above the surface. The temple of Kirti Náráyana is occasionally opened, with great labour, sufficiently to allow of access for certain ceremonies.

Tallacheri (or *Talásseri*).—Municipal town and seaport in Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TELLICHERRI.

Taloda.—Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1177 square miles. Population (1881) 49,788, namely, males 25,756, and females 24,032; occupying 9834 houses, in 1 town and 257 villages. Hindus number 10,901; Muhammadans, 602; and 'others,' 38,285. This Sub-division embraces the petty States of Chikhli and Káthi, and is situated in the extreme north-west of the District. The most striking natural feature is the bold outline of the towering Sátpurás stretching from east to west, with a belt of thick forest, infested by wild beasts along their foot. The prevailing soil is rich black loam. Where the land is tilled and open, the climate is not unhealthy; but in the villages along the base of the Sátpurás and in the west it is extremely malarious, and, except during April and May, unsafe for Europeans. Fever and spleen diseases are common. In 1863–64, the year of settlement, 1257 holdings (*khatas*) were recorded, with an average area of 24·97 acres, and an average assessment of £4, 8s. o½d. In 1878–79, 54,677 acres were under actual cultivation. Cereals and millets occupied 44,124 acres; pulses, 6051 acres; oil-seeds, 3937 acres; fibres, 104 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 461 acres.

Taloda.—Chief town and municipality of the Taloda Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 21° 34′ N., and long. 74° 18′ 30″ E., 62 miles north-west of Dhulia, and 104 miles west of the Bhusáwal station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Population (1881) 5663, namely, Hindus, 4153; Muhammadans, 350; Jains, 16; Pársís, 2; and 'others,' 1142. Taloda is the chief timber market of Khándesh District, and has also a considerable trade in *roya* (Andropogon Schœnanthus) grass, oil, and grain. The best wooden carts of Khándesh are manufactured here, costing about £4 each. Municipal income (1883–84), £336; incidence of taxation, 1s. 1d. per head. Post-office, school, and dispensary.

Tálodhi.—Village in Brahmapurí *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 3136, namely, Hindus, 2715; Muhammadans, 187; and non-Hindu aborigines, 234.

Talsána.—Petty States in the Jhálawár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 4 villages, with 2 separate shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 43 square miles. Population (1881) 3661. Estimated revenue, £2292; of which £91, 6s. is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £13, 18s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. The village of Talsána, situated about 11 miles south-east of Lakhtar Station on the Wadhwán branch of the Bombay, Baroda,

and Central India Railway, is famous for the shrine of the Prátik Nág, one of the few surviving remnants of snake-worship in Káthiáwár.

Tamarasseri.—Pass in Malabar District, Madras Presidency; lying between 11° 29′ 30″ and 11° 30′ 45″ N. lat., and between 76° 4′ 30″ and 76° 5′ 15″ E. long., carrying the road over the Western Ghâts from Calicut to the Wainád and Mysore. This route is now much used for the export of coffee; it was the one taken by Haidar in his descent on Calicut in 1773, and again by Tipú Sultán in his invasion of Malabar.

Tambaur.—*Parganá* in Biswán *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kheri District, and on the east, south, and west by Kundri, Biswán, and Láharpur *parganás*. Area, 190 square miles, or 121,333 acres, of which 82,560 acres are cultivated and 22,861 acres cultivable. The country is a complete network of rivers, being bounded on the north by the Daháwar and on the west by the Gogra; while it is intersected by the Chauká and many smaller streams. The soil is throughout *tarái* and *gánjar*, that is to say, it is so moist as not to require irrigation; and during the rainy season there is scarcely a village but is more or less inundated. In heavy or protracted floods, the autumn crops are destroyed. The Chauka and Daháwar rivers frequently change their course, and both annually cut away land from the villages through which they pass. Notwithstanding these disadvantages, the *parganá* is on the whole prosperous, and contains a large proportion of highly skilled agricultural castes, such as Kurmís or Muráos. Population (1881) 69,744, namely, males 36,732, and females 33,012. Of the 166 villages comprising the *parganá*, 80 are *tálukdárí*, 43 of which are owned by Gaur Rájputs. The remaining villages, 86 in number, are *zamíndárí*, of which 40 are also held by Gaurs, who thus own one-half the whole number of villages in the *parganá*. The only manufacture carried on is that of saltpetre. One road crosses the *parganá* from Sítápur to Mallápur.

Tambaur.—Town in Biswán *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 35 miles north-east of Sítápur town, and 6 miles west of Mallápur, between the Daháwar and Chauká rivers. Founded about 700 years ago by Tambúlís, whence its name. Population (1881) 3698, residing in 581 mud-built houses. Tambaur includes the village of Ahmadábád, and now belongs to a Kurmí community. School; bi-weekly market; remains of a Government fort; temple to Siva; masonry tank, now in decay; and a martyr's tomb.

Támberacheri (properly *Támarasseri*).—Pass in Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TAMARASSERI.

Támbraparní (*Porunai*, the Σωλήν of the Greeks).—River in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency, rising in the Western Ghâts, in lat. 8° 52′ N., and long. 77° 51′ E. It runs in a south-easterly direction to

Shermadevi, then north-east between Tinnevelli and Pálamcottah, then again south and east to the sea; total length, about 70 miles. With the Chittár and its other feeders, it irrigates 65,000 acres of land; and the District is largely dependent on this supply of water, the distribution of which is regulated by eight anicuts across the bed of the river. The valley is closely cultivated, and supports a dense population. The river is mentioned in the *Brihat Samhitá* (*circ.* 404 A.D.), and reference to the port (KOLKAI), then at the mouth of the Támbraparni, now 5 miles inland, is made by Ptolemy and in the *Periplus*. Near its source rises another and smaller stream of the same name, sometimes called the Western Támbraparní, which flows westward into Travancore.

The eighth and last anicut is known as Srivaikantham; and is situated 16 miles from the sea. The other seven anicuts above Srivaikantham are of old native construction; and it was principally owing to the great success of these works that the Srivaikantham anicut was projected. At the site of the Srivaikantham anicut the drainage area of the river is 1739 square miles, and the maximum flood discharge 118,673 cubic feet per second. The average annual discharge is 60,304 million cubic feet, equivalent to 14·9 inches of discharge from the whole catchment basin; but in 1877, when the freshes of the north-east monsoon were extraordinarily heavy, the total annual discharge of the river reached the high figure of 121,295 million cubic feet, equivalent to 30 inches from the whole catchment basin. Srivaikantham anicut was begun in 1867. From either flank of the anicut, which is 1380 feet in length between the wings, two main channels, 21 miles in length and supplied with head sluices, are taken off. They supply a large series of tanks which existed before the Srivaikantham anicut was built, and which before its construction were very inadequately supplied. Besides filling these tanks, the main channels irrigate directly a considerable area. The height of the anicut crest above mean sea-level is 37·40 feet, while the sills of the head sluices of the main channels are 6 feet below the crest of the anicut. The highest flood which has yet passed over the anicut rose to 11¾ feet over its crest. The system is expected to be finally completed in 1885–86. The final estimates of the cost amount to £147,680. During 1882–83 the area effectively irrigated and the revenue derived therefrom was as follows:—First crop, acres 19,546, £11,345; second crop, acres 17,647, £5829: total revenue, £17,174. The net revenue from the system in 1882–83 was £7302; while the actual return from the work, after paying all charges, including interest charges, was £2377, or 1·81 per cent. on the total capital outlay of £131,214. The ultimate area of irrigation, which it is estimated will be reached in 1886–87, the year after the completion of the works, is 25,000 acres, all of which will be double cropped. It is anticipated

that the net revenue will be increased to £11,090, or 7½ per cent. on the total capital outlay.

Tamlúk.—Sub-division of Midnapur District, Bengal, lying between 21° 53′ 30″ and 22° 32′ 45″ N. lat., and between 87° 39′ 45″ and 88° 14′ E. long. Area, 620 square miles; number of villages, 1639; houses, 83,940. Population (1881) 479,218, namely, males 233,921, and females 245,297. Hindus number 429,463, or 89·6 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 49,517; Christians, 200; and 'others,' 38. Proportion of males in total population, 48·9 per cent.; average density of population, 773 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 2·64; persons per village, 292; houses per square mile, 135; inmates per house, 6. This Sub-division comprises the 5 police circles of Tamlúk, Pánchkurá, Maslandpur, Sutáhátá, and Nandigáon. In 1884 it contained 4 magisterial and 2 civil and revenue courts, a regular police force of 147 men, and a village watch of 1380 *chaukidárs*.

Tamlúk.—Head-quarters of the Sub-division of the same name, Midnapur District, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 18′ 2″ N., and long. 87° 58′ 10″ E., on the Rúpnáráyan river. Population (1881) 6044, namely, males 2952, and females 3092. Hindus number 5226, and Muhammadans 818. Municipal income (1883–84), £606, of which £280 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 11⅛d. per head.

The town contains a police station (*tháná*), and is one of the principal seats of commerce in the District. In ancient times Tamlúk was a famous city, and figures as a kingdom of great antiquity in the sacred writings of the Hindus. It first emerges in authentic history as a Buddhist maritime port, being the place whence the Chinese pilgrim Fa-Hian took ship to Ceylon in the early part of the 5th century. Two hundred and fifty years later, another celebrated pilgrim from China, Hiuen Tsiang, speaks of Tamlúk as still an important harbour, with ten Buddhist monasteries, a thousand monks, and a pillar by King Asoka, 200 feet high. Even after the overthrow of Buddhism by Hinduism, many wealthy merchants and shipowners resided here, and carried on an extensive over-sea trade. Indigo, mulberry, and silk, the costly products of Bengal and Orissa, form the traditional articles of export from ancient Tamlúk; and although the sea has since left it, the place long continued an important maritime town.

In 635 A.D., the Chinese traveller Hiuen Tsiang found the city washed by the ocean; the earliest Hindu tradition places the sea 8 miles off, and it is now fully 60 miles distant. The process of land-making at the mouth of the Húglí has gone on slowly but steadily, and has left Tamlúk an inland village on the banks of the Rúpnáráyan river. The peasants, in digging wells or tanks, come upon sea-shells at a depth

of from 10 to 20 feet. Under the rule of the ancient Peacock Dynasty of Tamlúk, the royal palace and grounds are said to have covered 8 square miles, fortified by strong walls and deep ditches. No trace of the ancient palace is now discernible, except some ruins to the west of the palace of the present Kaibartta Rájá. The present palace is built on the side of the river, surrounded by ditches, and covers the more moderate area of about 30 acres. The old city lies under the river-silt, even the great temple is now partly underground; and the remains of masonry wells and houses are met with at 18 to 21 feet below the surface. A considerable number of old silver and copper coins bearing Buddhistic symbols have been recently discovered in the midst of debris from the crumbling banks of the Rúpnáráyan.

The principal object of interest at Tamlúk is a temple sacred to the goddess Barga-bhímá or Kálí, situated on the bank of the Rúpnáráyán. The honour of its construction is ascribed to various persons. Some say that it was built by Viswakarmá, the engineer of the gods. It is generally, however, assigned to the King of the Peacock Dynasty mentioned above, although the present royal family of Tamlúk assert that the founder of their dynasty, the first Kaibartta Rájá, was the builder. The skill and ingenuity displayed in the construction of this temple still attract admiration. The shrine is surrounded by a curious threefold wall. A high foundation was first constructed, consisting of large logs of wood placed upon the earth in rows over the whole area to be occupied by the temple, and afterwards covered over with bricks and stones to a height of 30 feet. Upon this the wall is built. The three folds form one compact wall, the outer and inner being made of brick, the centre one of stone. The wall rises to a height of 60 feet above the lofty foundations, its width at the top of the foundation being 9 feet. The whole is covered with a dome-shaped roof. Stones of enormous size were used in its construction, which raise the spectator's wonder as to how they were lifted into their places. On the top of the temple, although dedicated to the wife of Siva, is the sacred disc (*chakra*) of Vishnu, surmounted by the form of a peacock. The idol is formed from a single block of stone, with the hands and feet attached to it. The goddess is represented standing on the body of Siva, and has four hands.

Outside the temple, but within its enclosure, is a *keli-kadamba* tree, supposed to have the virtue of redeeming wives from barrenness. Numbers of women flock hither to pray for offspring, suspending pieces of brick to the tree by ropes made of their own hair. The branches of the tree are said to be covered with these curious ropes. The dread of the anger of the goddess is great. The Maráthás, when ravaging Lower Bengal, left Tamlúk untouched, and made many valuable offerings to the temple, out of reverence for the goddess. Even the river

Rúpnáráyan is said to still its waters as it flows by, while a short distance above and below the shrine the waves are turbulent. The river has on several occasions encroached near the temple, and once reached to within 5 yards of the walls. Although even the priests deserted the edifice from fear that it would be washed away, the stream was only allowed to approach within a certain distance; as often as it passed the line, the waters were forced back by the Divine Will, and the temple escaped without injury. There is also a Vishnuite temple at Tamlúk, which, in shape and construction, resembles that of Barga-bhímá. The legends connected with both temples will be found related in W. W. Hunter's *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 64, 66, and 67; and in his *Orissa*, vol. i. pp. 310–312.

Tamlúk, or Támralipta, as it is called in Sanskrit, although originally a centre of Buddhism, continued to be a place of great sanctity when that religion was ousted by Bráhmanism. Its very name bears witness to its ancient unorthodoxy, but even this has been distorted into a title of honour. Grammarians derive the word from *tamas-lipta*—literally, 'stained with darkness or sin.' But a legend relates that it took its name from the fact that Vishnu, in the form of Kalki, having got very hot in destroying the demons, dropped perspiration at this fortunate spot, which accordingly became stained with the holy sweat of the god, and gave a sanctity and name to the place. A Sanskrit text speaks of it as a holy place in the following words:—'I will tell you where your sins will be destroyed. There is a great place of pilgrimage in the south of India, an ablution in which saves a man from his sins.' The earliest kings of Tamlúk belonged to the Peacock Dynasty, and were Rájputs by caste. The last of this line, Nisankhá Náráyan, died childless; and at his death the throne was usurped by a powerful aboriginal chief named Kálu Bhuiyá, the founder of the existing line of Kaibartta or Fisher-kings of Tamlúk. The Kaibarttas are generally considered to be descendants of the aboriginal Bhuiyás, who have embraced Hinduism. The present Rájá is the twenty-fifth in descent from Kálu Bhuiyá.

Támracheri (*Támberacheri*, properly *Támarasseri*). — Pass in Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TAMARASSERI.

Támrángá.—Marsh or *bíl* on the right bank of the Brahmaputra, in Goálpárá District, Assam; of considerable depth, and covering an area of 7 square miles.

Támrapurni.—River in Madras Presidency.—*See* TAMBRAPARNI.

Tanakallu.—Village in Kadiri *táluk*, Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 57′ 30″ N., long. 78° 15′ E.; situated about 20 miles south of Kadiri town. Population (1881) 4430, occupying 920 houses. Hindus number 4203, and Muhammadans 227.

Tanda.—Sub-division and town of Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* TANDO MUHAMMAD KHAN.

Tánda.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh, lying between 26° 9′ and 26° 39′ N. lat., and between 82° 30′ and 83° 9′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Basti District in the North-Western Provinces, on the east and south by Azamgarh District, and on the west by Akbarpur *tahsíl*. Area, 489 square miles, of which 274 are cultivated. Population (1881) 314,768, namely, males 159,426, and females 155,342. Average density, 644 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 269,449; Muhammadans, 45,316; and 'others,' 3. Of 969 towns and villages, 805 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 130 between five hundred and a thousand; 32 between one thousand and five thousand; 1 between five thousand and ten thousand; and 1 between fifteen thousand and twenty thousand. Land revenue, £32,096. This *tahsíl* comprises the 3 *parganás* of Surharpur, Birhár, and Tánda.

Tánda.—*Parganá* in Tánda Sub-division, Faizábád District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by the Gogra river, which separates it from Basti District; on the east by Birhár *parganá*; on the south by Akbarpur *parganá*; and on the west by Amsin *parganá*. A well-wooded country, traversed throughout for a distance of 40 miles by a beautiful avenue of fine old mango trees, planted many years ago by a native gentleman, with the object of forming a continuous avenue from Tánda town to Faizábád. Area, after recent transfers, 124 square miles, of which 73 are cultivated. Population (1881) 84,890, namely, males 42,633, and females 42,257. Number of villages, 215. Cotton-weaving is the principal manufacture, but the industry is decaying. In 1862 there were 1125 looms in the *parganá*, principally in Tánda town; but owing to the competition of Manchester piece-goods, many weavers have left, and the number of looms in 1875 was estimated at only 875. Where English thread is used, each loom is capable of turning out out about £21 worth of cloth per annum, of which £6, 4s. represents the weaver's profits; where native thread is used, the out-turn is about £17, and the profits £5. During the later years of native rule, Tánda annually exported upwards of £12,000 worth of cloth to Nepál; but its exports thither have now decreased more than one-half. Five market villages; periodical fairs are also held on the occasion of Hindu and Muhammadan festivals.

Tánda.—Town and municipality in Faizábád District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Tánda *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated in lat. 26° 33′ N., and long. 82° 42′ 10″ E., 3 miles south of the Gogra river, on the road from Faizábád city to Azamgarh, and 12 miles from Akbarpur station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The road from Sultánpur to Gorakhpur passes through Tánda. The site of the town was granted by the

Emperor Farukh Siyyar to Háiat Khán, the *tálukdár*. Tánda is celebrated for its woven cotton goods, such as *jámdáni* muslin, which are said to rival those of Dacca. They sell at from £10 to £15 per piece. The total value of the annual export of cloth is about £15,000. Population (1881) 16,594, namely, males 8381, and females 8213. Muhammadans number 9007, and Hindus 7587. Number of houses, 3777. Municipal income (1883–84), £637, of which £493 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 5⅞d. per head of the population (19,954) within municipal limits. The town contains 44 mosques, 34 *imámbáras*, and 9 Hindu temples. Good Government school; dispensary; police station. Two annual fairs.

Tánda.—Town and municipality in Dasuya *tahsíl*, Hoshiárpur District, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 40′ N., and long. 75° 41′ E. Population (1881) 3175, namely, Muhammadans, 2045; Hindus, 969; Jains, 131; and Sikhs, 30. Number of houses, 783. Tánda forms, with the neighbouring town of Urmar, a mile to the north, a third-class municipality, with an income in 1883–84 of £453, or an average of 10½d. per head of the municipal population (10,295). Police station, dispensary, *saráí*, rest-house for civil officers, middle school, and subordinate judge's court.

Tánda Bádridán.—Town in Rámpur State, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 58′ 30″ N., long. 79° 0′ 20″ E., on the Moradábád-Káládungi road, 14 miles from Rámpur town. Population (1881) 9860, namely, Muhammadans 7020, and Hindus 2840. Tánda is the centre of the rice trade of this part of the country. The town is inhabited chiefly by Banjárás, who purchase the unhusked rice from villages in the Kumáun hills and the Tarái, and carry it to Tánda. Here it is husked by the women, and the grain is afterwards taken to Moradábád, 14 miles distant, and sent by rail to places where there is a demand for it.

Tándán (or *Tánrá*).—Ancient town, now a petty village, in Maldah District, Bengal. The ancient capital of Bengal after the decadence of GAUR. Its history is obscure, and the very site of the city has not been accurately determined. It is certain that it was in the immediate neighbourhood of Gaur, and south-west of that town, beyond the Bhágirathí. Old Tándán has been utterly swept away by the changes in the course of the Páglá. Neither the Revenue Surveyor nor the modern maps make any mention of the place. The land which subsequently re-formed at or near the old site is known by the same name, and is recorded in the District records as Tándá or Tánrá. According to Stewart (*History of Bengal*, ed. 1847, p. 95), Sulaimán Sháh Karání, the last but one of the Afghán kings of Bengal, moved the seat of Government to Tándán in 1564 A.D., eleven years before the final depopulation of Gaur. Though never a populous city, Tándán

was a favourite residence for the Mughal governors of Bengal until the middle of the following century. In 1660, the rebel Shujá Sháh, when hard pressed by Mír Jumlá, Aurangzeb's general, retreated from Rájmahal to Tándán; in the vicinity of which town was fought the decisive battle in which the former was finally routed. After this date, Tándán is not mentioned in history, and it was subsequently deserted by the Mughal governors in favour of Rájmahal and Dacca.

Tando.—Sub-division and town in Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* TANDO MUHAMMAD KHAN.

Tando Adam.—Town in Hálá Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* ADAM-JO-TANDO.

Tando Alahyar.—*Táluk* and town in Hálá Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* ALAHYAR-JO-TANDO.

Tando Bágo.—*Táluk* of Tando Muhammad Khán Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 709 square miles. Population (1881) 55,473, namely, males 30,560, and females 24,913; occupying 22,428 houses in 100 villages. Hindus number 5591; Muhammadans, 45,413; Sikhs, 852; and 'others,' 3617. Imperial revenue in 1880–81, £10,354; local revenue, £637; total, £10,991. In 1883, 53,968 acres were assessed for land revenue, and 35,038 acres were actually cultivated. In the same year, the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 5; and regular police, 27.

Tando Bágo.— Chief town of Tando Bágo *táluk*, Haidarábád District Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 24° 47′ N., and long. 69° E., on the left bank of the Shádiwáh Canal, 58 miles south-east of Haidarábád city, with which it has road communication through Tando Muhammad Khán. It is connected also by cross roads with Wango Barar, Khairpur, Pangryo, and Badin; and with Nindo Shahr by the postal road. Population (1872) 1452, namely, 484 Musalmáns, 875 Hindus, and 93 'others.' Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. *Múkhtiárkár's* office, and police lines, with accommodation for 2 officers and 7 constables. Post-office, cattle-pound, and commodious *dharmsála*, the latter maintained at the expense of the local funds. Several of the Talpurs of the Bagáni family reside here, the principal man of note being Mír Wálí Muhammad, a lineal descendant of Bágo Khán Talpur, who founded the town about 140 years ago. A little trade is done in rice and grain, sugar, cloth, oil, tobacco, country liquor and drugs. The manufactures are insignificant.

Tando Ghulám Alí. — The largest Government town in Tando Muhammad Khán Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; distant 20 miles east of Tando Muhammad Khán, 36 miles south-west of Haidarábád city, and 14 miles west of Digri, the head-quarters of Dero Mohbat *táluk*. The head-quarters of Dero Mohbat

táluk are about to be removed from Digri to Sháhú Buzdar, a small village, about 2 miles south of Tando Ghulám Alí. Population (1872) 1412. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. It has road communication with Haidarábád by the postal line, and by cross road with Tando Muhammad Khán, Háji Sáwan, and Rájá Khanáni. Anglo-vernacular school, supported mainly by the family of the Mír, a *sárdar* of the first class, who resides here with his family. The trade of the town is mainly in grain, dates, sugar, molasses, spices, salt, cloth, metals, oil, tobacco, indigo, country liquor, and drugs. There are no manufactures of any consequence. The town was founded about 1819, by Mír Ghulám Alí Manikáni, the grandfather of the present Mír, who is called after him.

Tando Lukmán.—Town in Khairpur State, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated a short distance north of Khairpur town, on the road to Rohri. Population (1872) 1580. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. The place is noted not only for its manufacture of country liquor, but for carved and coloured woodwork, such as cradles, bedposts, small boxes, and other articles. It is said to have been founded about 1785, by Lukmán Khán Talpur.

Tando Masti Khán.—Town in Khairpur State, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated about 13 miles south of Khairpur town, and 18 miles from Ránípur. The main road from Haidarábád (Hyderábád) to Rohri runs through the town. Population (1872) 4860, of whom the greater number are Muhammadans. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. The town was founded about 1803 by Wadero Masti Khán. Near it, in a southerly direction, are the ruins of Kotesar, supposed to have been once a populous place. On the western side are the shrines of Sháh Jaro Pír Fazl Nango and Shaikh Makái.

Tando Muhammad Khán (or *Tanda, Tando*).—Sub-division of Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; lying between 24° 14′ and 25° 17′ N. lat., and between 68° 19′ and 69° 22′ E. long. Area, 3163 square miles. Population (1881) 229,603.

Physical Aspects.—The general appearance of the Sub-division is that of a level plain, the monotony of which is but slightly relieved by belts of trees fringing the canal banks. To the east and south are large salt tracts, and on the west, skirting the Indus, *babúl* (Acacia arabica) forests of considerable extent. There are about 83 Government canals. Of these, the Gúni is the largest, being 69 miles in length, and most of the canals take off from it. It is now almost perennial. The chief *dandhs* or marshes are the Barejí, the Sarabudi, and the Jhalar. Limestone and saltpetre occur in the Sub-division. Venomous snakes abound. Hyænas, wolves, foxes, deer, jackals, and hog are the principal wild animals.

Population.—The total population returned in 1872 was 189,931

persons; and in 1881, 229,603, namely, males 126,654, and females 102,949; occupying 54,295 houses, in 1 town and 407 villages. Hindus number 20,709; Muhammadans, 191,755; Sikhs, 3240; aborigines, 13,876; and Christians, 23. Of the Hindus, the Baniyá caste is the most numerous; of the Muhammadans, Sindís and Balúchís.

Crops.—The staple crops are *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), rice, tobacco, cotton, sugar-cane, and hemp, which are sown between March and July, and reaped between February and November; also wheat, barley, vegetables, and other garden produce, which are sown on land previously saturated either by canal or rain water. Irrigation is effected by means of the Persian wheel. The highest rate of rent for rice land does not exceed 5 rupees, or 10s. per acre. *Baráni* or rain land cultivation is assessed at rates varying from 2s. to 4s. per acre. The total area of land held in *jágír*, or revenue free, amounts to 257,000 acres, and the number of *jágírdárs* is 225.

Trade and Manufactures.—The main exports are agricultural produce, camel cloth, *ghí*, cotton, and salt; annual value estimated at £1000. The imports comprise grain, drugs, metals, oil, silk, skins, sugar, tobacco, etc.; annual value estimated at £3000. The value of the transit trade of the Sub-division is approximately returned at £1,000,000. The manufactures are striped cloths, blankets, camel saddles, gold and silver ornaments, wooden articles, carpets, silk thread, metal goods, and sugar. The manufacture of salt and saltpetre has recently been prohibited throughout Sind. Five fairs are held in the Sub-division. The aggregate length of roads in 1883 was 590 miles, of which 131 miles are trunk and postal lines. The number of ferries was 15, and of these 2 were on the Indus and 3 on the Gúni Canal.

Administration.—The total imperial revenue of Tando Muhammad Khán in 1873–74 was £34,128, and the local revenue £3504; in 1881, the total imperial revenue was £41,404, and the local revenue £2833. The land-tax furnishes the principal item. The Sub-division is administered by an Assistant Collector; and contained in 1883, 1 civil and 9 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 23; regular police, 125 men. One municipality, viz. Tando Muhammad Khán; municipal receipts in 1883–84, £506; incidence of taxation, 2s. 8½d. per head. Hospital and dispensary at Tando Muhammad Khán. A lock-up. The average annual rainfall of the Sub-division is stated not to exceed 4 inches. Of late years the rainfall has increased; and in 1882 it was 10·05 inches. The prevailing disease is fever.

Tando Muhammad Khán.—Chief town and head-quarters of the Tando Muhammad Khán Sub-division, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 25° 7′ 30″ N., and long. 67° 33′ 30″ E., on the right bank of the Gúni Canal, 21 miles south

of Haidarábád city. Population (1881) 3281. As the seat of an Assistant Collector, the town contains a court-house and the usual public buildings. Municipal revenue (1883–84), £506; incidence of taxation, 2s. 8½d. per head. Local trade in rice and other grain, silk, metals, tobacco, dyes, saddle-cloths, matting, cochineal, country liquor, and drugs. Transit trade in rice, *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), and tobacco. The manufactures comprise copper and iron ware, earthenware, silk thread, blankets, cotton cloth, shoes, country liquor, and articles of wood. Tando Muhammad Khán is said to have been founded by Mír Muhammad Khán Talpur Sháhwáni, who died in 1813.

Tangacheri.—Town in the Cochin *táluk* of Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TANGASSERI.

Tangail.—Town in Maimansingh District, Bengal, and head-quarters of Alia Sub-division; situated on the Lahajanga, a branch of the Jumna. The town, with a cluster of neighbouring villages, forms a municipal union, and covers an area of 10 square miles. Population (1881) 18,124, namely, Hindus 10,844, and Muhammadans 7280. Municipal income in 1881–82, £367. Tangail contains two good schools supported by private subscriptions, and is a centre of considerable trade, especially in European piece-goods.

Tángan.—River of Northern Bengal. Enters Dinájpur District from Jalpáigurí, on its extreme northern boundary; and after a southerly course of about 80 miles, passes into Maldah District, where it empties itself into the Mahánandá near Muchiá, a small mart for rice and grain. Its total length is about 120 miles. During the rains, the Tángan is navigable throughout its entire course in Dinájpur; for the remainder of the year, it is open to boats of from 7 to 10 tons burden for about 50 miles. Its chief tributaries are the Lok and the Tulái; the banks are for the most part jungly. The Tángan brings down a large quantity of silt, and has of late years suffered considerable changes in its course. In 1807, according to Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, this river effected its junction with the Mahánandá about 7 miles lower down than at present. Its old bed is still traceable in a southerly direction by Kenduá. It is stated that the Tángan has also apparently altered its course in the neighbourhood of Ráníganj village, where the remains of a stone bridge, which evidently spanned the former channel of the river, are still to be seen on the high embanked road connecting Ráníganj with Gaur. The channel of the Tángan is in many places becoming choked by the sand and mud brought down from the hills.

Tangancherri.—Town in Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TANGASSERI.

Tangasseri.—Town in Cochin *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 8° 54′ N., and long. 76° 38′ 15″ E. Popula-

tion (1881) 1665, occupying 308 houses. Hindus number 4; Muhammadans, 2; Christians, 1658; and 'others,' 1. Formerly a Dutch settlement. Pharoah (1855) says:—'It was originally a fort built on a headland of laterite, jutting into the sea. The length is about 2½ furlongs east and west, and the breadth 1 furlong. Portions of the old walls are still visible, as are also the ruins of an old Portuguese tower and belfry. . . . The inhabitants are mostly Roman Catholics. . . . The customs, port dues, and other revenues derived from this settlement, are levied by the State of Travancore, an equivalent in money being paid by it for the same.' In civil jurisdiction, the people are subject to the District *munsif's* Court at Anjengo, which again is subordinate to the District Court of South Malabar at Calicut. In criminal matters there is a resident magistrate, subordinate to the British Joint Magistrate at Cochin.

Tanglu.—One of the principal peaks in the Singálilá range, Dárjíling District, Bengal. Lat. 27° 1′ N., long. 88° 7′ 15″ E. Height, 10,084 feet; on the summit is some extent of undulating land. The Nepál frontier road runs over this hill, and there is a staging bungalow for travellers, available on application to the Deputy Commissioner of Dárjíling. The Chhotá or Little Ranjít river takes its rise under this mountain.

Tángrá.—Town in Maldah District, Bengal.—*See* TANDAN.

Tangutúr.—Town in Ongole *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 20′ 30″ N., long. 80° 6′ 15″ E.; situated on the trunk road from Madras to Ganjám, about 20 miles south of Ongole town. Population (1881) 7215, occupying 1299 houses. Hindus number 6993; Muhammadans, 146; and Christians, 76. Police station, travellers' bungalow.

Tanjore (*Tanjávúr*).—British District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 9° 49′ and 11° 25′ N. lat., and between 78° 56′ and 79° 54′ E. long. Area, 3654 square miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 2,130,383 souls. Tanjore forms a portion of the Southern Karnátik. It is bounded on the north by the river Coleroon, which separates it from Trichinopoli and South Arcot Districts; on the east and south-east by the Bay of Bengal; on the south-west by Madura District; and on the west by Madura and Trichinopoli Districts and by the State of Pudukota. The administrative head-quarters are at TANJORE CITY, situated on the south bank of the Káveri (Cauvery).

Physical Aspects.—Tanjore has a just claim to be considered the garden of Southern India. The vast delta of the Káveri occupies the flat northern part of the District, which is highly cultivated with rice, dotted over with groves of cocoa-nut trees, and densely populated. This tract is thoroughly irrigated by an intricate network of channels

connecting the different branches of the delta. The irrigation works will be described in a later section of this article.

Mr. Hickey (*The Tanjore Principality*, 1874) gives the following description of the physical characteristics of the remainder of the District:—'South-west of the town of Tanjore, the country is somewhat more elevated, especially about Vallam, where the Collector generally resides; but there is nothing that can be called a hill in the whole District. Along the coast, a belt of sand-drifts and low jungle protects the lands from the sea; but between Point Calimere and Adrampatam, a salt swamp extends over several square miles. No rock is common in Tanjore except laterite, which is abundant in the high ground near the western frontier, and is again met with in the extreme south. Around Vallam occur beautiful specimens of rock-crystal. Along the southern coast a narrow and thin bed of sandstone, containing shells, was lately found running parallel with and about half a mile from the shore, and about 2 yards below the surface. This stone is compact enough to be used for building purposes. Extensive beds of marine shells, consisting of the large pearl oyster and other existing specimens, have been found in many excavations south of Negapatam, at the distance of 3 or 4 miles inland, and covered with several feet of alluvial soil; and in the south coast also are numerous specimens of this kind, of comparatively recent appearance. The delta contains some tracts of rich silt, and the immediate margin of the river is generally covered with a light loam; but for the most part the soil is naturally poor, and it is irrigation alone which makes the District such a scene of fertility. The varieties of soil in the higher ground beyond the delta are red loam, black cotton-soil, sandy light earth, and yellow clay much impregnated with soda, and miserably sterile.' The coast-line of the District extends for a distance of 140 miles; a heavy surf breaks incessantly on the shore, rendering communication with shipping very difficult and dangerous.

History.—The Tanjore country was under the Cholas during the whole course of their supremacy, and the history of the District is substantially that of the Chola dynasty. At present hardly anything is known of the Cholas prior to the end of the 10th or the beginning of the 11th century, when they rose to a position of great eminence. They are mentioned by the Greek writers, their capital being in the 2nd century A.D. at Warrior, near Trichinopoli. The capital was afterwards several times changed, being situated successively at Combaconum, Gangaikondasorapuram, and Tanjore. The Muhammadan invasion, 1303 to 1310 A.D., by Malik Káfur dealt a severe blow to the Chola sovereignty; and not many years later it was overshadowed by the rising power of Vijayanagar. The period which ensued was a stormy one, witnessing a perpetual series of struggles between the

legitimate sovereigns, Wadeyar adventurers from the north, and Muhammadan soldiers of fortune. The Vijayanagar sovereignty was not acknowledged till the 16th century. It is possible that this change was due to the cause to which it is ascribed by local tradition and manuscripts, namely, a quarrel between the Chola and Pandyan kings, which resulted in the latter sending to Vijayanagar for aid.

However this may be, it is clear that in the 16th century the Naik viceroys of Vijayanagar engrossed all real power in the south; for little is heard of the Cholas after that date. Nagama Naik and his son, Vishwanátha Naik, established themselves at Madura as independent chiefs, acknowledging the nominal sovereignty of Vijayanagar. Tanjore was established as a separate viceroyalty, and held by four successive Naik chiefs. The tragic end of the last still forms a popular legend among the villagers. He was attacked by the Madura Naik, and besieged in his own fort. When he found further defence hopeless, he blew up his palace, rushed with his son into the midst of the enemy's troops, and was killed sword in hand. This was in 1674. One child was rescued; and he subsequently made an alliance with the Muhammadans, who despatched an army headed by the Maráthá Venkají, the brother of Sivají the Great, to reduce Tanjore, and place him in possession of his rights. They effected this; but in two years Venkají had ousted his own protégé, proclaimed himself independent, and established a Maráthá dynasty, which lasted till 1799.

The British first came into contact with Tanjore by their expedition in 1749, with a view to the restoration of a deposed Rájá. The cession of Devikota was promised as the reward of their aid. They failed in this attempt, and a second expedition was bought off. Subsequently, the famous Muhammad Alí, Nawáb of Arcot, was aided by the Madras Government in enforcing a claim for tribute against the Tanjore dynasty, and the fort fell into the hands of the invaders on the 16th September 1773. In 1775 it was restored to the Tanjore prince, Tulzují. Practically, until 1779 the Maráthás held the Tanjore State, first as tributaries of the Mughal Empire, then of the Nawáb of the Karnátik Payanghát, then as independent sovereigns, and, lastly, under the English East India Company, as assignees of the Nawáb's tribute. During the latter end of the last century, Tanjore was in fact a protected State of the British Empire, paying its share of the subsidy for the army, which the latter maintained for the defence of the country. It was ceded to the Company in absolute sovereignty by Rájá Sharabhoji, under treaty dated 25th October 1799.

The territory thus acquired, with the under-mentioned three small settlements on the coast not included therein, constitutes the

present District of Tanjore. (1) DEVIKOTA, a small territory adjoining the fort of that name, estimated to yield a revenue of £3150. This had been previously acquired by the Company from Rájá Pratáp Singh by treaty in 1749. (2) The Dutch settlement at NEGAPATAM, with the adjoining seaport of Nagore (Nágúr) and the territory known as the Nagore dependency. Negapatam was one of the early settlements of the Portuguese, from whom it was taken by the Dutch in 1660. The Nagore dependency was purchased by the latter, in 1773, from Rájá Tulzují; but was immediately afterwards taken possession of by the Nawáb of the Karnátik Payanghát, with the aid of the English, the Nawáb reimbursing the Dutch the money they had paid for its purchase. It was, however, restored to the Rájá in 1776, together with the whole of his territory, which had been conquered by the Nawáb in 1773; and the Rájá in 1778 granted it to the English. Negapatam was wrested by the English from the Dutch in 1781; and thus, like Devikota, this settlement was already in their possession at the time of the cession of the Tanjore principality. (3) TRANQUEBAR settlement, yielding a revenue of £2100, which the Danes acquired from the Naik Rájá of Tanjore in 1620, and which they continued to hold, subject to the payment of an annual *peshkash* or tribute of £311, until 1845; when it was purchased from them by the English East India Company.

Under the treaty of 1799, the East India Company engaged to make over to the Rájá of Tanjore one-fifth of the net revenue of the territory which was transferred to them, with a further sum of 1 *lákh* of Star pagodas, or £35,000. They also permitted him to retain possession of the fort of Tanjore, with a small territory within a radius of half a mile around it, together with certain villages and lands in different parts of the District. Rájá Sharabhojí died in 1832, and was succeeded by his son Sivají, who died in 1855, without legitimate male issue. Upon this, the Ráj was declared extinct, and the rights and privileges appertaining to it ceased. Liberal provision having been made for the support of all relatives and dependants, the private property of the Rájá was left in the possession of the family. Until 1841 there was a Political Resident at Tanjore; but this office was amalgamated in that year with that of the Collector of the District. The head-quarters of this last-mentioned officer, however, remained at Negapatam, the seat of the old Dutch settlement, till 1845; when, upon Tranquebar coming into the possession of the East India Company by purchase, they were removed to that place. After the death of the last Rájá, when the fort and city of Tanjore became British territory, the head-quarters of the Collector, as also the seat of the chief court of civil and criminal judicature, then called the Civil and Sessions Court, were removed to Tanjore city.

Population.—The first Census of the District was taken in 1822. Since then, six others have been taken, all based on actual enumeration. According to the Census of 1871, the population of the District was 1,973,731. The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 2,130,383, dwelling in 12 towns and 3539 villages, and in 374,532 houses. The total area of the District was taken at 3654 square miles. Compared with the Census of 1871, these figures show an increase of 156,652 persons, or 7·94 per cent. The figures for 1881 yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 583; persons per village or town, 600; persons per house, 5·7; villages or towns per square mile, 0·97; houses per square mile, 102. In respect of density of population, Tanjore ranks first in Madras. The average density of the District is two and a half times that of the whole Presidency; and in some of its *táluks* it is more than five times the Presidency average. Combaconum *táluk* has a population of 1181 persons per square mile. In point of size, Tanjore ranks fifteenth, and in population third among the Districts of the Presidency. Classified according to sex, there were — males 1,026,528, and females 1,103,855, or 482 males to 518 females in every thousand. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 402,816, and girls 400,225; total children, 803,041, or 37·7 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 623,618, and females 703,510; total adults, 1,327,128, or 62·3 per cent. Of 94 males and 120 females the age was not returned.

The religious classification of the people is as follows:—Hindus, 1,939,421, or 91·03 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 112,058, or 5·2 per cent.; Christians, 78,258, or 3·66 per cent.; Jains, 625; Buddhists, 2; and 'others,' 19. The Hindus have, between 1871 and 1881, increased 7·5 per cent.; the Muhammadans, 9·1 per cent.; and the Christians, 17·8 per cent.

The Hindus, distributed according to caste and other social distinctions, consisted of—Vanniyars (labourers), 609,733; Vellalars (agriculturists), 372,409; Pariahs (out-castes), 297,921; Bráhmans (priests), 134,584; Shembadavans (fishermen), 123,206; Idaiyars (shepherds), 70,805; Kammalars (artisans), 60,686; Kaikalars (weavers), 59,252; Sátánís (mixed castes), 42,955; Shanáns (toddy-drawers), 37,864; Shetties (traders), 25,381; Ambattans (barbers), 22,991; Vannans (washermen), 15,835; Kushavans (potters), 11,677; Kshattriyas, 5158; Kanakkans (writers), 196; and 'others,' 48,768.

The Muhammadan population by race, as distinguished from descendants of converts, consisted of—Shaikhs, 4351; Patháns, 1316; Sayyids, 1196; Arabs, 575; Labbays, 344; Mughals, 34; and 'others,' 104,242. According to sect, the Muhammadans were thus returned—Sunnís, 99,555; Shiás, 2255; Wáhábís, 5; and 'others,' 10,243.

The Christians, according to sect, consisted of—Roman Catholics, 67,292; Protestants undistinguished by sect, 5705; Lutherans, 2240; Church of England, 990; and other sects, 2031. Adopting another principle of classification, there were—Europeans, 168; Eurasians, 677; native converts, 75,509; and 1904 of nationality not stated. Of the native converts—Roman Catholics numbered 65,745; Protestants undistinguished by sect, 5208; Lutherans, 2162; Presbyterians, 91; and the remainder converts to other sects.

The ethnology of Tanjore differs from that of most other Districts on the east coast of the peninsula only in the larger proportion of Bráhmans in the upper grades of the population. The bulk of the population, as elsewhere in the south, consists of Dravidian Hindus. All traces of the immigration of Aryans from Northern India have been lost in the depths of antiquity. Whether the pure Aryan element is preserved unalloyed in any of the numerous classes now included under the general head 'Hindus' or not, is an open question; though there can be no doubt that most of the classes which claim Aryan descent contain a large admixture of Dravidian blood. The Muhammadan population consists chiefly of Labbays or Sonakars, a mixed race sprung from the early colonists from Arabia, to whom the coast-line of Tanjore, as commanding a never-failing trade with Ceylon, held out special attractions. These colonists have in course of time found their way also into the interior, and have everywhere adopted the language of the country. The proportion of persons classed as Arabs, Pathans, and Mughals in the last Census returns is hardly one-fifth of the aggregate Muhammadan population of the District; and even these figures are probably excessive. The Eurasian inhabitants of the District are chiefly of Portuguese and Dutch extraction.

There is a constant flow of labourers from Tanjore to Ceylon; and to some extent also to Burma, the Straits Settlements, the French West Indies, and Mauritius. The emigrants are almost invariably Pariahs and other low-castes. They generally return home with considerable savings out of the wages they earn in the colonies. During the year 1883–84, the number of such emigrants to the Straits Settlements, Guadaloupe, and Martinique was 2219.

Tanjore District was the scene of the earliest labours of Protestant missionaries in India. In 1706, the German missionaries Ziegenbalg and Plütschau established a Lutheran mission in the Danish Settlement of Tranquebar, under the patronage of King Frederic IV. of Denmark; and in 1841 their establishments were taken over by the Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission, which subsequently extended its operations into the District. The mission at Tanjore was founded in 1778 by the Rev. C. F. Schwartz of the Tranquebar Mission, who some time previously had transferred his services to the Society for

Promoting Christian Knowledge. The mission establishments at Tanjore were taken over in 1826 by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, which subsequently founded new stations in several parts of the District. The total number of native Protestants belonging to the various societies (Church of England, Lutheran, and Wesleyan) in the District in 1881, was 8255; which is larger than in any other District in the Presidency, except Tinnevelli and Madura.

Roman Catholic missions in Tanjore date from the first half of the 17th century. Their churches and chapels are scattered over the whole District; but their principal seats are Negapatam, Velanganni (on the coast, 6 miles south of Negapatam), Tanjore, Vallam, and Combaconum. The St. Joseph's College, which was founded in 1846 by the French Jesuits at Negapatam, was removed to Trichinopoli in 1883. The total number of native Roman Catholics in the District in 1881 was 65,745.

The Census divided the male population into six main groups as regards occupation—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 43,668; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 5359; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 25,013; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 437,832; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 124,105; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising all male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 390,551.

Urban and Rural Population.—Of the 3551 towns and villages in Tanjore District in 1881, 1007 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 1259 contained between two and five hundred; 818 between five hundred and one thousand; 341 between one and two thousand; 78 between two and three thousand; 33 between three and five thousand; 10 between five and ten thousand; 1 between fifteen and twenty thousand; 1 between twenty and fifty thousand; and 3 upwards of fifty thousand. Fifteen towns contain 5000 inhabitants and upwards. Of these, the five following are municipalities:—TANJORE CITY (1881), 54,745; COMBACONUM (Kumbakonam), 50,098; MAYAVARAM, 23,044; NEGAPATAM, 53,855; MANNARGUDI, 19,409.

Of all the Districts in the Madras Presidency, Tanjore is the most densely populated. Before rice was imported into Ceylon from Bengal and Burma, Tanjore was the source on which Ceylon depended for its supplies of food; and even now the balance of trade is greatly in its favour. There are more than 3000 Hindu temples in the District. Many of the larger ones are splendid structures, and possess extensive endowments in land; the great temple at Tanjore city, declared by Fergusson to be the finest in India, is fully described in the following article. During the annual temple festivals, large fairs are held in

different parts of the District. The principal Hindu festivals are held at Combaconum; and here, too, is celebrated the famous *Mahámagham*, a festival occurring once in twelve years, to which crowds flock from all parts of the country. The Muhammadan festival called *Kandiri*, held annually at Nagore, and a Roman Catholic festival (Nativity of the Virgin), celebrated every year in September at Velanganni near Negapatam, are also worthy of notice.

Agriculture.—Rice is the staple crop of the District, and is raised almost entirely by artificial irrigation. It is grown chiefly in the delta of the Káveri; and to a much smaller extent in the upland portion of the District, under tanks fed by the local rainfall. The rice grown in Tanjore consists chiefly of two species, namely, *kár* and *pishánam*, each including minor varieties. A few coarser sorts are sown broadcast; but this mode of cultivation is carried on only in a few places beyond the delta, and there on rain-fed land. In all cases of irrigated cultivation, young plants are raised in seed-beds and transplanted. The *kár* is planted in June, and reaped in October. The *pishánam* is planted in July and August, and reaped in January and February.

Dry crops are cultivated only to a small extent in Tanjore. They are chiefly (1) *varagu* (Panicum miliaceum), (2) *kelvaragu* or *ragí* (Eleusine corocana), (3) *kambu* (Pennisetum typhoideum), and (4) *keviru* or *dál* (Cajanus indicus). *Varagu* and *dál* are grown chiefly at the western end of the upland portion of the District. They are sown in July, and cut in February. *Ragí* and *kambu* are cultivated in small patches both in and beyond the delta. In the delta, these crops are raised either on high lands which are not irrigable, or as an auxiliary crop on rice-fields. In the latter case, they are sown either before or after rice. They are three months in the ground, being generally sown in June, and cut in September.

Green crops are common in Tanjore, and are grown chiefly in backyards of houses and on river margins. The green crops generally raised are onions, radishes, sweet potatoes, and the various kinds of greens of which those most prized are coriander and fenugreek. The only fibres cultivated in the District are two kinds of so-called Indian hemp (Crotalaria juncea and Hibiscus cannabinus), which are grown to a limited extent on high lands. A very small quantity of cotton is also grown. Plantain and betel-vine gardens abound in the delta, where sugar-cane and tobacco are also cultivated. Tobacco is generally restricted to backyards of houses and margins of rivers. The only part where it is grown to any considerable extent is the sandy tract at the south-eastern end of the District near Point Calimere, where it is a remunerative crop and a principal article of trade. The tobacco consists of broad thick leaves, and is prized for its

strength and pungency. It is used only for chewing, and is chiefly exported to the Straits Settlements and Travancore. Cocoa-nut palms and mango trees are abundant all over the District, except in the south-west, where, owing to the dryness and the laterite soil, few trees flourish.

Of the total area of Tanjore District—in the local records put at 2,392,117 acres—about 55 per cent., or 1,306,713 acres, are actually under the plough; 17 per cent., or 402,958 acres, are cultivable, but not cultivated (including land left fallow); and 28 per cent., or 682,446 acres, are uncultivable, or reserved for purposes other than agricultural. Of the cultivated area, 1,231,944 acres, or more than 94 per cent., are under food-grains; and of these, 914,719 acres are irrigated rice lands. In the four deltaic *táluks* of Combaconum, Máyavaram, Shiyáli, and Nannilam, the proportion, both of land actually cultivated and of land devoted to food-grains, is considerably larger. The area under the principal crops in 1883–84 was—cereals and millets, 1,155,640 acres; pulses, 36,003 acres; orchard and garden produce, 31,189 acres; drugs and narcotics, 1488 acres; condiments and spices, 10,684 acres; starches, 4468 acres; sugars, 2840 acres; oil-seeds, 35,578 acres; dyes, 3484 acres; and fibres, 4565 acres.

The prevailing system of revenue administration in Tanjore is *ráyatwári*. The general average of the Government assessment for the District is—for irrigated lands, 9s. 9d. per acre; for unirrigated lands, 2s. 6d. per acre. The average net profit of the *ráyatwári* holder is estimated at 19s. 3d. per acre for irrigated lands, and 4s. 11d. for unirrigated lands. Wages of agricultural labour are invariably paid in grain. The ordinary rates are ¾ of a *marakhál*, or 3·87 lbs., of paddy (giving about 2½ lbs. of clean rice) per diem for a trained labourer, male or female, and ½ *marakhál* for inferior adult labourers; boys and girls receive half these rates. In towns, where wages are paid in money, the rates are now generally twice as high as twenty-five years ago, and in some cases the increase is still greater. The daily rates of wages in 1883–84 were—for skilled labour, from 10¾d. to 1s. 4¼d.; for unskilled labour, from 4½d. to 6½d. Prices of all articles of food have risen during this period in about the same ratio. The village sales of paddy, the staple produce of the District, on which the original commutation rate for the assessment of irrigated land was calculated, show that the average price of the Tanjore *kalam*, equal to 12 *marakháls* or 62 lbs., has varied from 10½d. in 1850–51 to 2s. 10½d. in 1875–76. The average prices of produce at the end of 1883–84 per *maund* of 80 lbs. were—rice, 4s. 3½d.; *ragí*, 2s. 0¾d.; *kambu*, 2s. 4¼d.; maize, 2s. 2¼d.; wheat, 7s. 9¾d.; horse-gram, 2s. 9¼d.; *dál* (Cajanus indicus), 3s. 6½d.; salt, 5s. 4¼d.; oil-seeds, 9s. 4½d. Landless labourers constitute about one-half of the adult male population of the District, and of these

nearly two-thirds are engaged in agriculture. They are chiefly Pallars and Pariahs, who are permanently attached to farms. The remainder are low-caste Súdras, who have immigrated from time to time from the Maravar country, lying between the Káveri (Cauvery) delta and Cape Comorin. They go by the general name of Terkattiyáns or 'southerners.'

In the delta, the alluvium deposited by the river freshes constitutes, as a rule, the only manure. In the upland portion of the District, as also in those lands in the delta which are irrigated from the tail-ends of channels, and therefore lack this element of fertility, manure is required. The mode of manuring generally adopted is by folding sheep or cattle, the latter being more generally employed. Vegetable mould, cow-dung, ashes and other refuse of cook-rooms, and night-soil, are also used. On the whole, the average cost incurred for manuring may be put down at from 2s. to 3s. an acre.

The live-stock returns in 1883–84 were as follows: — Buffaloes, 126,003; bullocks, 306,575; cows, 208,427; sheep, 647,441; goats, 265,838; asses, 2381; pigs, 13,127; horses and ponies, 645; elephants, 5; and camels, 2. Dead stock—ploughs, 179,244; carts, 19,813; and boats, 568.

Irrigation. — The great natural advantages of irrigation which Tanjore possesses had been more or less improved artificially many centuries before the District became British territory. The Coleroon, which forms the northern boundary of Tanjore, is, from its low level, utilized but to a small extent. The main branch of the Káveri (Cauvery) enters Tanjore District about 8 miles east of Trichinopoli, and spreading out into innumerable small channels, which form a vast network extending down to the sea, converts the northern portion of the District, commonly known as the Káveri delta, into one huge rice-field. Near the western limit of Tanjore, the two main streams come into close contact with each other; and at this point, where the bed of the Coleroon is 9 or 10 feet lower, stands (across a natural outlet of the Káveri channel) the ancient native work, a masonry dam, known as 'The Grand Anicut,' which prevents the waters of the Káveri branch being wholly drawn off into the Coleroon.

This work, which has been justly called the 'bulwark of the fertility of Tanjore,' is traditionally believed to have been constructed by a king of the Chola dynasty in the 3rd century A.D. There are grounds for conjecturing that it dates not later than the 12th century. It originally consisted of a solid mass of rough stone, 1080 feet in length, 40 to 60 in breadth, and 15 to 18 in depth, stretching across the whole width of the outlet in a serpentine form; and in the year 1830, it was provided by Capt. Caldwell of the Engineers with under-sluices, to allow of the escape of sand. In the early part of this century,

however, it was discovered that the Coleroon branch, from its more rapid fall and more direct course to the sea, was drawing off an unduly large share of water; while the Káveri branch was deteriorating by the formation of deposits at its head. This defect was removed by the construction across the Coleroon branch, in 1836, of a masonry dam known as the 'Upper Anicut,' which has associated the name of Sir Arthur Cotton, of the Madras Engineers, with the agricultural prosperity of Tanjore. This work was followed by the construction of a regulating dam across the Káveri branch in 1845, to counteract the effects of the Coleroon anicut, which, it was found, was throwing into the Káveri branch a body of water far larger than could be allowed to enter it with safety to Tanjore. The Coleroon anicut, 750 yards long, is divided by two small islands in the bed of the river into three parts, of which the northern is 7 feet 4 inches, and the other two 5 feet 4 inches high. Its thickness throughout is 6 feet, and it is provided with sluices for the escape of sand. The Káveri regulating dam, 650 yards in length, is divided into three portions, of which the central has its crown on a level with the river bed; while the one on either side is raised from 12 to 18 inches above it. By these two works, the body of water which enters Tanjore District has been brought under complete control.

Almost simultaneously with the Coleroon dam, there was carried out, as supplementary to it, another work on the Coleroon, about 70 miles lower down, known as the Lower Anicut. The obstruction of a large portion of the water which the Coleroon was drawing off would, as a necessary consequence, have lowered its surface level, thereby depriving of their irrigation the lands which depended on it in the District of South Arcot. The primary object, therefore, of the Lower Anicut was to ensure irrigation to these lands. But advantage was taken at the same time to provide a supply of water from the Coleroon for the north-eastern portion of Tanjore, which was either beyond the influence, or was indifferently supplied by the tail-ends, of the Káveri channels. Accordingly, the spot where an island divides the Coleroon into two branches was selected. A dam, with suitable vents for the passage of boats as well as the escape of sand, was constructed across each branch; and a channel was taken off from each, one for South Arcot, under the designation of North Rajan *váyakhál*, and the other for Tanjore, called South Rajan *váyakhál*.

While, however, the main source has been thus brought under control, the plan of internal distribution, in connection with this vast deltaic system of irrigation, has not yet been perfected. During the period of forty years which has elapsed since the system of head-works was completed, considerable improvements have doubtless been effected in the way of providing regulating dams at the bifurca-

tion of the several main branches of the Káveri, as well as head-sluices for minor channels, and waste weirs for surplus vents; but much remains to be done towards a complete utilization of the available supply of water, as well as the perfection of drainage arrangements.

The aggregate area of irrigated land in Tanjore District, excluding the *zamíndárí* estates, for which no returns are available, is about 965,878 acres, of which about 869,658 acres are irrigated from river channels, and about 96,220 acres from tanks. Cultivation under tanks, which are almost wholly rain-fed, is restricted to the upland portion of the District; there being neither space to spare for reservoirs, nor ordinarily any need for them in the delta, where the river channels keep flowing during the whole of the cultivating season.

The total land revenue of the District in 1882–83, including miscellaneous items and *jodi* or quit-rent on *ináms* (lands held on revenue-free tenure), was £437,869, of which £387,058 was obtained more or less directly from irrigation. These figures include every item, and also the deductions for the remuneration of village establishments.

Tanjore is more than ordinarily favoured by nature with regard to immunity from the calamities alike of flood and drought. The high ridges of sand which skirt its coast-line form an effective protection against ordinary storm-waves; while the level of the country, which slopes towards the east, ensures the free drainage of the surplus water of the Káveri as well as of local rainfall, which is rarely very heavy.

Commerce and Trade. — Tanjore District is amply provided with means of communication. It is traversed by two branches of the South Indian Railway; one from Trichinopoli crossing the District to Negapatam on the coast, and the other (Madras branch) branching off from this line at Tanjore city and running in a north-easterly direction. The former carried during the year 1883, 3,606,040 passengers; and 286,698 tons of goods were forwarded from and received at stations within the District. The amount realized from passengers and goods was £184,818. Including the cross lines of internal communication, but excluding the innumerable village tracks, the District contains 90 roads aggregating nearly 1233 miles in length, most of which are provided with substantial masonry bridges over the rivers by which they are intersected, as well as culverts for smaller channels. There is but one navigation canal in use, running 32 miles along the coast from Negapatam to Vedaranyam in the south. It is used almost exclusively for the carriage of salt, which is produced in abundance at Vedaranyam.

The manufactures for which Tanjore District is celebrated are metal wares, silk cloth, carpets, and pith-work. The chief articles of import are cotton piece-goods, cotton twist, and metals from Europe; and

timber and areca-nuts from the Straits Settlements and Ceylon. Rice is by far the most important article of export, alike by sea and land. By sea, it is exported almost wholly to Ceylon; inland, to Trichinopoli, Madura, and Salem. The total value of the imports by sea in 1883–84 was £411,809, in which piece-goods accounted for £67,906, and areca-nuts for £153,976. During the same year, the exports by sea amounted in value to £767,951, the grain and pulse alone being valued at £407,487. The rate of interest generally charged in small transactions, where jewels or other valuable articles are given in pawn as security, is from 6 to 12 per cent. per annum; in other cases, it varies from 12 to 24 per cent. In large transactions, money is rarely lent otherwise than upon the security of land or house property, and the rate of interest varies from 6 to 12 per cent.; the maximum is demanded, however, only in rare cases.

Administration. — Tanjore District, as constituted at its last re-arrangement in 1860, is administered by a Magistrate-Collector, a Sub-Collector, 2 Assistant Collectors, and 2 uncovenanted Deputy Collectors, with the ordinary medical, fiscal, and constabulary establishments. The District is divided into 9 *táluks*, over each of which is a *tahsíldár*, assisted by one or more Deputies; and these 9 *táluks* are formed into 5 divisions, each under the charge of the Sub-Collector or one of the Assistant or Deputy Collectors—the Collector himself having no direct executive charge, but exercising a general supervision. For judicial purposes, the District is divided into North and South Tanjore. The judicial establishment of North Tanjore for civil causes consists of 6 *munsifs* and 1 Sub-Judge, all subject to the controlling authority of the North Tanjore District Judge, who is also Sessions Judge on the criminal side, hearing all criminal cases not triable by the Magistracy (with or without a jury, according to the nature of the case), and all appeals from the highest class of Magistrates. Similarly, in South Tanjore, there are 7 *munsifs* and 2 Sub-Judges, subject to the South Tanjore District Judge. The total District revenue in 1882–83 was £733,837, equal to an average of 6s. 10½d. per head on a population of 2,130,383. In 1883, the regular police force amounted to 1394 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £19,458. These figures show 1 policeman to every 2·6 square miles of area and every 1528 inhabitants; the cost of maintenance was at the rate of £5, 6s. 6d. per square mile, or 2d. per head of population. There are two jails in the District, one at Tanjore city, the other at Tranquebar. The former had in 1882 a daily average of 130 prisoners; 497 prisoners were admitted during the year, of whom 42 were females; the average cost per head was £7, 3s. 1¾d.; and the average earnings of each prisoner employed on manufactures was 8s. In the Tranquebar jail, there was in the same year a daily average of 111·8 prisoners; 312 prisoners

were admitted during the year, of whom 20 were females; the average cost per head was £8, 9s. 3d., and the average earnings of each inmate employed on manufactures was 8s.

There are about 700 *chattrams* or native charity-houses in the District; in some of these, food is distributed gratuitously to all travellers. The educational machinery consists of 5 colleges and 1265 schools of various grades. The five colleges are the Government Provincial College at Combaconum, the S. P. G. Collegiate School at Tanjore city, St. Joseph's Jesuit College, the Wesleyan Mission College at Negapatam, and Lutheran Mission College at Tranquebar; 15 of the schools are of the higher class, and affiliated to colleges; 63 (including 8 girls' schools) are middle-class schools, 1184 (including 33 girls' schools) are primary schools, 1 is a normal school for masters, and 2 are special schools. The pupils attending these schools during the year ending March 31, 1884, numbered 38,958. The Census Report of 1881 returned 57,623 boys and 1812 girls as under instruction, besides 174,313 males and 5379 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The rainfall, as elsewhere on the Coromandel coast, varies considerably from year to year. The south-west monsoon sets in in June, and continues more or less till September; but the rain falls only at long intervals, and rarely for two hours continuously. The total fall during this monsoon averages 15 inches. The north-east monsoon sets in in October or November, and continues more or less till January. The rains during this part of the year are more continuous and, on the whole, more copious, averaging 25 inches. These averages are taken for the last ten years. The average annual rainfall of the District for the eighteen years ending 1881 taken at Tanjore city was 30·02 inches. The District enjoys some rain in nearly every month; but it is heaviest from August to December inclusive, and lightest in March. The hottest season of the year is from March to May. After this period, the freshes in the rivers, and the occasional showers of the south-west monsoon, tend to keep the atmosphere to some extent cool. The returns furnished for the first edition of this work showed that the mean annual temperature for 1875 was 81·9° F., varying from a maximum of 103·9° in May to a minimum of 64·2° in January. No later thermometrical returns are available.

Storms and cyclones are of frequent occurrence on the coast; but Palk's Bay, which bounds the District on the south, affords protection to the shipping during bad weather.

None of the diseases can be regarded as endemic. Formerly, elephantiasis was commonly met with in the city of Tanjore, whence it latterly extended to Combaconum. It existed also at Negapatam

on the coast, but with improved sanitation it has now to a considerable extent disappeared. The diseases most common are fevers, small-pox, and cholera, all more or less epidemic. Cholera was particularly fatal in 1854 and 1875; it commences generally about the close of the north-east monsoon in January, and continues throughout the following hot season. There are 37 dispensaries in the District. Of these, five situated in the five municipalities; four at Tranquebar, Shiyali, Tiruturaipundi, Puttukotai; and seven connected with *chattrams*, afford relief to both in-door and out-door patients. The remaining 21 are for out-patients only. [For further information regarding Tanjore District, see the *Manual of the District of Tanjore*, compiled under the orders of Government by T. Venkasami Row (Madras, 1883). See also *Madras Census Reports* of 1871 and 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Madras Government up to 1884.]

Tanjore.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 672 square miles. Population (1881) 375,086, namely, males 181,268, and females 193,818; occupying 57,108 houses, in 4 towns and 407 villages. Hindus number 339,396; Christians, 26,701; Muhammadans, 8752; and 'others,' 237. The South Indian Railway enters the *táluk* on the north and leaves it *viâ* Tanjore city on the west, with a branch from Tanjore city eastward to Negapatam. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 4 civil and 4 criminal courts, including District head-quarters courts; police circles (*thánás*), 15; regular police, 398 men. Land revenue, £60,858.

Tanjore (*Tanjávúr*).—City in Tanjore District, Madras Presidency; head-quarters of Tanjore District, municipality, and station on the South Indian Railway; situated in lat. 10° 47′ N., and long. 79° 10′ 24″ E. Population (1881) 54,745, namely, males 26,272, and females 28,473, occupying 9000 houses. Hindus number 47,195; Christians, 4174; Muhammadans, 3152; and 'others,' 224.

Tanjore was the last capital of the Chola dynasty, and was subsequently ruled by a Naik governor from Vijayanagar. Between 1656 and 1675 it fell into the hands of the Maráthás, under whose rule it became the capital of a compact and prosperous State. In 1758 it was attacked by the French under Lally, who extorted large sums from the reigning Maráthá Rájá. Colonel Joseph Smith captured the fort in 1773; and again, in 1776, it was occupied by an English garrison. Rájá Sharabhojí, by a treaty in 1779, ceded the dependent territory to the British, retaining only the capital and a small tract of country around, which also at last lapsed to the Government in 1855, on the death of Rájá Sivají, son of Rájá Sharabhojí, without legitimate male issue.

Tanjore is the head-quarters of the Collector, the Judge, and the

other departments of District administration. The municipal income from taxation in 1883–84 was £3698; incidence of taxation, 1s. 4¼d. per head.

As the capital of one of the greatest of the ancient Hindu dynasties of Southern India, and in all ages one of the chief political, literary, and religious centres of the south, the city of Tanjore is full of interesting associations. Its monuments of Hindu art and early civilisation are of the first importance. The great temple is known throughout the world. Fergusson, *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture* (1876), says: 'The great pagoda was commenced on a well-defined and stately plan, which was persevered in till completion. It consists of two courts, one a square of about 250 feet, originally devoted to minor shrines and residences; but when the temple was fortified by the French in the last century, it was converted into an arsenal, and has not been reappropriated to sacred purposes. The temple itself stands in a courtyard extremely well proportioned to receive it, being about 500 feet long by half that in width, the distance between the gateway and the temple being broken by the shrine of the bull Nandi, which is sufficiently important for its purpose, but not so much so as to interfere with the effect of the great *vimana*, which stands near the inner end of the court. The perpendicular part of its base measures 82 feet square, and is two storeys in height, of simple outline, but sufficiently relieved by niches and pilasters. Above this the pyramid rises in thirteen storeys to the summit, which is crowned by a dome said to consist of a single stone, and reaching a height of 190 feet. The porch in front is kept low, and the tower dominates over the *gopuras* and surrounding objects in a manner that imparts great dignity to the whole composition.

'Besides the great temple and the Nandi porch, there are several other smaller shrines in the enclosure, one of which, dedicated to Subrahmanya, a son of Siva, is as exquisite a piece of decorative architecture as is to be found in the south of India, and though small, almost divides our admiration with the temple itself. It is built behind an older shrine, which may be coeval with the great temple as originally designed. A peculiarity of the temple is that all the sculptures on the *gopuras* belong to the religion of Vishnu, while everything in the courtyard is dedicated to the worship of Siva. At first I felt inclined to think it had been erected wholly in honour of the first-named divinity, but am now more disposed to the belief that it is only an instance of the extreme tolerance that prevailed at the age at which it was erected, before these religions became antagonistic. Its date is unknown. Mr. Norman, a competent authority, in the text accompanying Tripe's photographs, says it was erected by Kadu Vettiya Soran, or Cholan, a king reigning at Conjeveram in the beginning of

the 14th century. The Subrahmanya is certainly one century, probably two centuries, more modern. The bull itself is also inferior in design, and therefore more modern than those at Halebid, which belong probably to the 13th century; and the architecture of the shrine cannot be carried back beyond the 15th century. It may even be considerably more modern.'

The fort, which is now almost dismantled, covers a large area. Within it is the chief part of the native town, and the palace, which is still occupied by the family of the last Rájá. There are some fine halls in the palace, which also contains the large and valuable library that belonged to the Rájá, with some unique manuscripts catalogued by the late Dr. Burnell of the Madras Civil Service.

Tanjore is famous for its artistic manufactures, including silk carpets, jewellery, *répoussé* work, copper ware, and curious models in pith and other materials. The South Indian Railway connects Tanjore city with NEGAPATAM (its seaport) on the east, and Trichinopoli on the west. The returns furnished for the first edition of this work showed that in the year 1875 the Tanjore railway station received or despatched 346,307 passengers and 23,717 tons of goods, and earned a revenue of £19,157. No later returns are available.

Tánk.—*Tahsíl* of Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab; situated between 32° and 32° 25′ N. lat., and between 70° 7′ and 70° 41′ E. long.; occupying the north-western corner of the District, at the foot of the Suláimán Hills. Tánk *tahsíl* was formerly a semi-independent State, and until quite recently under the management of a Nawáb subordinate to the District Officer. It consists of a naturally dry and uninviting plain, intersected at right angles to its length by ravines sloping in the direction of the Indus. By assiduous cultivation, however, it has acquired an aspect of prosperity and greenness which distinguish it strongly from the neighbouring *tahsíl* of Kolách. Low ranges of stony hills here and there project into the plain from the Suláimán system. The country long lay uninhabited, there being little to tempt any settlers in so barren a tract; but it was finally occupied by Pathán tribes from the western hills.

The Nawábs of Tánk belong to the Kati Khel section of the Daulat Khel clan, the most powerful of the original settlers, who gradually expelled all the rest. The last Nawáb, Sháh Nawáz Khán, who died in 1882, is said to have been 20th in descent from Daulat Khán, eponym of the tribe. His family first assumed the tribal headship in the person of Katál Khán, great-grandfather of Sháh Nawáz. His son, Sarwar Khán, a most remarkable man, devoted himself throughout a long reign to the amelioration of his territory and his tribesmen. Under his sway, the Daulat Khel changed from a pastoral to a cultivating people; and they still revere his memory, making his acts and laws the standard of

excellence in government. Sarwar Khán towards the end of his life found it necessary to tender his submission to the Sikhs, after their occupation of Dera Ismáil Khán; and his tribute was fixed at £300 per annum. Three years later, Ranjít Singh visited the Deraját in person, and raised the tribute to £6000. Sarwar Khán paid the stipulated sum as long as he lived; but his son and successor, Aladád Khán, permitted it to fall into arrears, and finally fled to the hills, where he found a refuge among the Wazíri Patháns. Tánk was then given in *jágír* to Náo Nihal Singh; but Aladád kept up such a constant guerilla warfare from the hills that the Sikh grantee at last threw up his possession in disgust. Málik Fateh Khán Tiwána then for a time seized on the State, and after his final defeat by Daulat Rái (*see* DERA ISMAIL KHAN DISTRICT and TIWANA), it was made over to three dependants of the Nawábs of Dera; Sháh Naváz Khán, the son of Aladád (who had died meanwhile), being left a beggar. In 1846, however, the exiled chief attached himself to Lieutenant (afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes, who procured his appointment by the Lahore *darbár* to the governorship of Tánk.

After the annexation of the Punjab, the British Government confirmed Sháh Naváz Khán in his post as governor; and he thenceforward enjoyed a semi-independent position, holding a portion of the revenues, and entrusted with the entire internal administration, as well as with the protection of the border. The results, however, proved unsatisfactory, both as regards the peace of the frontier and the conduct of the administration. A scheme was accordingly introduced for remodelling the relations of the State. The Naváb's income was increased, but he was deprived of all sovereign powers, retaining only those of an honorary magistrate. Tánk has thus become an ordinary *tahsíl* of Dera Ismáil Khán District, under the charge of the local authorities.

Area, 568 square miles, with 78 towns and villages, 5384 houses, and 8483 families. Total population (1881) 35,516, namely, males 19,420, and females 16,096. Average density of population, 62·5 persons per square mile. Muhammadans number 32,976; Hindus, 2259; Sikhs, 280; and Christian, 1. Of the 78 towns and villages, 58 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 15 between five hundred and a thousand; 8 between one and two thousand; and 2 between two and three thousand. Area under principal crops for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82—wheat, 30,158 acres; *bájra*, 7048 acres; barley, 2219 acres; rice, 1401 acres; and cotton, 1947 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £7035. The only local administrative officer is a *tahsíldár*, presiding over 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 59 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 68.

Tánk.—Town in Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, and headquarters of Tánk *tahsíl;* formerly capital of a semi-independent principality. Situated in lat. 32° 14′ N., and long. 70° 25′ E., on the left bank of a ravine issuing from the Tánk Záru Pass, 40 miles northwest of Dera Ismáil Khán town. Population (1881) 2364, namely, Muhammadans, 1898; Hindus, 383; Sikhs, 82; and Christian, 1. Number of houses, 466. Formerly a municipality, which was abolished in 1879. Founded by Katál Khán, first Nawáb of Tánk. A mud wall surrounds the town, 12 feet in height, and 7 feet thick, with numerous towers and 2 or 3 gates, but in bad repair. The fort, now in ruins, is an enormous pile of mud about 250 yards square; walls, faced with brick, enclose a citadel 40 feet high. Fifteen mosques, courthouse, Nawáb's offices and residence, dispensary, and school-house. Water said to be impure, and dangerous for strangers. Considerable imports of iron, timber, and *ghí*, and exports of grain and cloth between the Wazíris and the people of Tánk, when good terms subsist between them. Sir Henry Durand, Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, lost his life at this town in 1870, being thrown from his elephant by the howdah striking against the top of a gateway. He was buried at Dera Ismáil Khán.

Tankári.—Port in Broach District, Bombay Presidency, in lat. 21° 59′ 45″ N., and long. 72° 42′ 30″ E.; situated on the east side of a small creek, which for about 5 miles strikes northwards from the right bank of the Dhádhar, about 7 miles from the mouth of that river. This creek is not navigable, even by small country craft, except at high tide; but notwithstanding, Tankári was formerly the port for a considerable tract of country, receiving the opium of Málwá as well as the cotton and grain of Jambusar and Amod. Trade has to a large extent left Tankári, since the opening of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. The returns furnished for the first edition of this work showed that in 1874–75 Tankári still had a total value of exports amounting to £135,790, and of imports £28,098. No later returns are available.

Tanna.—District and town, Bombay Presidency.—*See* THANA.

Tanna.—An old fort on the Húglí river, opposite Fort Alígarh in Garden Reach, a suburb of Calcutta. Taken by Clive on the recapture of Calcutta, 30th December 1756.

Tanuku.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Area, 371 square miles. Population (1881) 188,306, namely, males 93,421, and females 94,885; occupying 32,427 houses in 175 villages. Hindus number 185,009; Muhammadans, 2981; and Christians, 316. The *táluk* is flat, productive, and healthy. The irrigation has been perfected by means of anicut canals. Chief trade in grain, rice, and cotton. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and

2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 59 men. Land revenue, £64,402.

Tanuku. — Head-quarters of Tanuku *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency; situated about 20 miles south-south-east of Rájámahendri town. Population (1881) 3072, occupying 477 houses. Hindus number 2943; Muhammadans, 95; and Christians, 34. Post-office.

Tánúr.—Seaport in Malabar District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 10° 58′ N., and long. 75° 56′ E., at the mouth of a small river falling into the Arabian Sea. Also a station on the South-west line of the Madras Railway. Thornton gives the following notice of the place:—'In the year 1782, the British army, under the command of Colonel Humberstone, acting against the forces of Haidar Alí, took refuge here from a storm of five days' continuance, which dispersed the boats, spoiled the provisions, and damaged the ammunition of the expedition. It was formerly a prosperous place, but is now much decayed. Distance from Calicut, south-east, 22 miles; Mangalore, 170; Bombay, 546.' The average annual value of the trade for the five years ending 1883–84 was £9735—imports, £387; exports, £9348. The trade in 1883–84 was valued at £10,865—imports, £350; exports, £10,515.

Tapasí.—Coal-mine in the RANIGANJ coal-field, Bardwán District, Bengal. The colliery was first opened in 1848; but the shaft then worked being destroyed by fire in 1863, another was opened in that year. Out-turn of coal in 1866, 206,154 *maunds;* thickness of seam, 24 feet. This mine is now closed. An analysis of Tapasí coal gave the following results:—Fixed carbon, 49·20 to 53·75 per cent.; volatile matter, 31·50 to 35·40 per cent.; ash, 8·50 to 14·75 per cent.

Tappa. — Petty State under the political superintendence of the Bhopál Agency in Central India; consisting of 13 villages in the Gwalior *parganá* of Sonkach, which were granted in 1822 by Mahárájá Dáolat Ráo Sindhia to Thákur Rúp Singh, Girasia of Tappa. The State continued in Rúp Singh's family till 1865, when the chief committed suicide, leaving no heir. The adoption of Takht Singh, a distant relative of the family, was sanctioned by the Gwalior Darbár in 1866. Takht Singh manages the State in person.

Tappa Asl.—*Parganá* in Amethí *tahsíl*, Sultánpur District, Oudh. Area, 67 square miles, of which 32 are cultivated. Population (1881) 39,116, namely, 37,487 Hindus and 1629 Muhammadans. Number of villages or townships, 97; of which 83 belong to the Bachgotis, whose original home in Oudh lies a few miles farther south, in Patti *parganá*, and only 7 are owned by Bílkhar Rájputs, the predecessors of the Bachgotis as lords of the soil. With the exception of one, all the villages are held in *zamíndárí* tenure. Government land revenue, £4150, or 2s. 4¾d. per arable acre.

Tappal.—Town in Khair *tahsíl*, Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the old high bank of the Jumna (which now flows 4 miles to the west), in lat. 28° 2′ 25″ N., and long. 77° 36′ 55″ E., 32 miles north-west of Alígarh town. Population (1881) 4712, namely, Hindus, 3014; Muhammadans, 1635; Jains, 60; 'others,' 3. A decaying town, with no trade; *bázár* of a few poor-looking shops; unmetalled sandy roads; ruinous and neglected buildings. Once a place of some note: remains of a large fort, said to be 800 years old; ruins of another fort, formerly belonging to Begam Samru. Residence of a *tahsíldár* in early days of British rule; since transferred to Khair. School, police station, post-office. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Tápti.—One of the great rivers of Western India. It rises in Betúl District of the Central Provinces, in lat. 21° 48′ N., and long. 78° 15′ E.; but a sacred reservoir in the town of Multái (lat. 21° 46′ 26″ N., long. 78° 18′ 5″ E.) is generally considered the source of the river. After leaving Multái, the stream flows at first through open and partially cultivated lands, and then cuts its way between two spurs of the Sátpura mountains; the Chikalda hills of Berar on the left, and the wilder range of Kálíbhit on the right. Beyond this gorge, the hills again retire. But for the first 150 miles of its course, spurs of the Sátpura range somewhat closely hem in the valley of the Tápti. Falling rapidly from the Sátpura uplands, through a deep-cut channel from 100 to 150 yards wide, the flood-waters of the river soon drain away, leaving in the dry season a stream which, passing over a rocky bed, can in many places be forded. The banks, though high, are not steep; and except where sharply cut by a turn in the river's course, they slope gradually to the level of the stream, and, like the country round, are overgrown with forest trees, brushwood, and grass, a shelter to wild animals of every kind.

During the next 180 miles, the Tápti passes through the upland plateau of Khándesh. At its eastern extremity, where it is separated by only a slight fall from the plain of Berar, the level of Khándesh is from 700 to 750 feet above the sea. From this point the plateau slopes towards the north-west, until it reaches the high lands that divide Khándesh from Surat. In its passage through Khándesh, the Tápti receives several tributaries. Of these the chief are, on the left bank, the Púrna, the Wághar, the Girna, the Bori, the Pánjhra, and the Siva. On the right bank, the neighbourhood of the Sátpura hills prevents the formation of any large affluents. But from this side come the Suki, the Aner, the Arunáwati, the Gomai, and the Wálha. For the first 160 miles of its course in Khándesh, the Tápti passes through a flat and well-cultivated country. During the last 20 miles, as it draws near the west of the District, hills on either side send down

spurs close to its banks; the land, no longer tilled, is covered with thick forests; and the only signs of inhabitants are clusters of three or four Bhíl huts. At the same time the stream, forcing its way amid stones and boulders, quickens into rapids, or shoots over barriers of rock.

Here, at the narrow passage known as the Deer's Leap, or *Haran-phál*, the descent from Khándesh to the plain of Gujarát begins. This section of the river's course, consisting partly of still, deep basins bordered by high cliffs, and partly of rapids formed by barriers of rock, extends through more than 50 miles of a wild, almost uninhabited country.

On leaving the Dáng forests, the Tápti enters on its last stage—the passage across the Surat plain to the sea. The direction is generally westerly, and the distance 50 miles in a direct line, or, including windings, 70 miles. These 70 miles of the Tápti's course are naturally divided into two parts—above and below the influence of the tidal wave. The upper or fresh-water section includes about 40 miles; and the lower or tidal section, little more than 30. Though they gradually merge into each other, the character of these two sections is in several respects distinct. In the upper part, the river passes through the less cultivated tracts in the east of the Surat plain; and it is only when the village of Wághecha is passed, 22 miles west of the point where it enters Surat District, that the last spur of the Rájpipla hills is left behind.

During almost the whole of its course of 32 miles as a tidal river, the Tápti rolls through the rich, highly cultivated plain that forms the central part of the District of Surat. Only for a few miles before it falls into the sea are the lands through which it passes barren and liable to be submerged by the tide. Below Pálri, the course of the river runs for about 8 miles towards the south-west; then near the village of Warácha, where the tides daily ebb and flow, it winds westwards for about 2 miles. Here, a little above the village of Amroli, the limit of ordinary navigation, it strikes for 3 miles sharply to the north-west, till, at Wariáv, the lowest ford on the river, it bends for 3 miles more to the south-west; then winding again to the south-east, it runs for 4 miles in a line almost parallel to its former course to the city of Surat, where it again strikes suddenly towards the south-west. So sharp is this curve in the river's course, that though by water Surat is more than 10 miles from Amroli, by land the distance is but little more than 2 miles. Below Surat, the river stretches to the south-west, till, about 4 miles from its mouth, it turns to the left, and, gradually widening, flows southwards into the sea. During this section of its course, the banks have little of the steep and rough character they bear higher up the stream. Within the limit of the tide, as the current becomes

weaker, the land on either side of the river is less heaped up, till, about 7 miles below Pálri, so little is it raised above the level of the stream, that for about 2 miles between the villages of Warácha and Phulpárá, in times of flood, the river, overtopping the left bank, and in a great body of water rushing westwards, has on several occasions flooded the city of Surat. Farther down the stream, at the more abrupt turnings, as on the right bank at Ránder, and at Surat about 2 miles farther down on the left bank, the outer edge is cut by the force of the current into a high steep cliff. But below Ránder, the right bank soon drops again, and continues low and shelving for 15 miles to the sea. So, too, within a few miles of Surat, the left bank, which for a mile or two was raised from 20 to 30 feet above the stream, has again sunk so low that at high tide the water, overlapping the bank, passes beyond, flooding a large extent of land.

Below the limit of the tide, the bed of the river is covered by a layer of mud. This deposit varies in depth from a few inches, where the tide runs strong, to as much as 4 feet in the still bends of the river. Opposite the city of Surat, at Umra, 2 miles, and at Magdala, 4 miles farther to the west, the sand washed down in times of flood has formed banks and shoals. Especially is this the case near the mouth of the river, where the antagonistic currents of the stream and tide have, across almost the entire breadth of the river, thrown up alternate layers of sand and clay.

In its passage through Surat District, the only important tributary received by the Tápti is the Wareli. This stream, rising in the western spurs of the Rájpipla hills, flows towards the south-west across the Mándvi Sub-division, and, after a course of about 15 miles, joins the Tápti on its right bank at the village of Pipária, 40 miles from the sea.

At the Wághecha rapids, about 40 miles from its mouth, the trap rock *in situ* forms several islands in the bed of the Tápti. These islands, though occasionally liable to be flooded, are covered with trees, as well as with grass and bushes. Of the banks of sand and clay that rise above the ordinary level of the stream, the chief (generally spoken of simply as *bet*, or 'the island') lies in a bend of the right bank of the river about 5 miles below the city of Surat. Near the mouth of the river, inside of the bar, are also one or two flat wooded islands.

In Surat District there are two important ferries across the Tápti. From the town of Mándvi, on the right bank of the river, about 60 miles from its mouth, a boat crosses to the villages on the southern bank. The other ferry plies between the city of Surat and the villages on the northern bank. The Tápti can be forded at three places within Bombay territory. Of these, Karod is the highest up, about 56 miles from the sea; the next Bodhán, about 40; and then Wariáv, about 20 miles from the mouth of the river.

The following details, showing the state of the channel of the Tápti in 1876, as regards navigation, between the sea and the city of Surat, are quoted from the *Bombay Gazetteer*, vol. ii. pp. 12, 13:—'The anchorage ground for large ships in Surat roads has from 42 to 48 feet at low water. The Surat roadstead is a safe place of anchorage from October to the beginning of April; it is considered dangerous for ships of much draught after the middle of April. In that month, and in the early part of May, smart southerly winds frequently blow during the springs, particularly in the night with the flood-tide. On the bar, the range of the tide varies from 12 to 22 feet at neaps, to 27 feet at highest springs. The average rise of the tide at the bar is about 15 feet; but higher up, about 4 miles west of Surat, it is only about 10 feet. The entrance over the bar is continually changing, new channels being opened by the shifting of the sands, and old ones closed up. Formerly, the Dumas channel was the deepest, and was generally used by ships. The direction of this passage was along the east side of a sandbank towards the village of Dumas, on the left bank of the river. This channel is now almost filled up, and is only navigable at half-tide. The proper entrance can be pointed out only by a native pilot. Although the estuary is here not less than 4 miles across, the channel is narrow, and at low-water spring-tides, between the sands near the bar, there is not depth sufficient for a small boat.

'The distance of the bar from Surat town is about 12 miles in a straight line, or 15 miles by the river channel. For nearly two-thirds of this distance there is a continued chain of sandbanks, many of them dry at half-tide, with very small depths at low water in the channels between them. The two chief sandbanks are near Magdala, about 4 miles, and Umra, about 10 miles from the mouth of the river. Above Umra and near the city, the river is more contracted, with deeper water. Opposite the fort of Surat, there is at all times of the tide a depth of water of not less than 10 feet. Though boats sometimes pass up to Ránder, 3 miles, and to Amroli, 11 miles above Surat, that city is at present the ordinary limit of navigation. The shipping which visit Surat are native craft of from 18 to 36 tons burthen, and light draught steamers, which ply from Surat to Gogo and Bhaunagar on the western shore of the Gulf of Cambay. These vessels only ply during the fair-weather season. In the months of June, July, and August, there is nothing but purely local traffic on the Tápti, and very little else in September. Unless when fortunate in wind and tide, sailing vessels often take from two to three days to get up as far as Surat. The steamships, varying from 100 to 200 tons burthen, and drawing from 5 to 6 feet, cannot pass up and down the river at less than half-tide.'

The port of Swally (Suwáli), famous in early commerce with India, and the scene of our famous sea-fight with the Portuguese, lay at the

mouth of the river. It is now deserted. Indeed, its approaches are completely silted up. This deteriorating influence is steadily at work throughout the Gulf of Cambay, and is specially observable around the mouth of the Tápti. How far the silting up of the lower channels tends to increase the severity of the floods in the rainy season, by decreasing the discharging capacity of the river, and by what method the alleged evil can be dealt with, form serious questions which modern engineering has not yet determined.

Before the days of railways, it was at one time thought that the Tápti might be made the highway for the carriage of the produce of Khándesh and the Central Provinces to the sea. With this object, a survey of the river was made in 1852. This survey extended over a distance of 232 miles, from the city of Surat to near the east of Khándesh, at the confluence of the Wághar. Beyond the eastern limit of Khándesh, during the first 150 miles of its course, the bed of the Tápti is too broken to permit of its navigation by boats. The only use which its waters serve for the purposes of trade is the floating down of timber in times of flood; and the channel is so rapid that the wood is said frequently to be sucked into secret currents and broken to pieces or lost.

The total length of the course of the Tápti is, including windings, about 450 miles. The river has a drainage area of about 30,000 square miles, and carries to the sea a volume of water estimated to vary from an hourly discharge of 120,000,000 cubic yards during seasons of extreme flood, to 25,000 cubic yards towards the close of the dry-weather months.

Though several projects have from time to time been framed with the object of utilizing the waters of the Tápti for the purpose of irrigation, no lands are at present (1886) irrigated from this river. Except over a limited portion of the Sahyádri hills, the tract of country drained by the Tápti is not subject to any great rainfall. The break of the rains in the first week of June is generally marked by a considerable increase in the strength of the stream, but a decided fresh is seldom seen till the first week of August. Floods bringing down water enough to fill the bed of the river up to the top of its banks are unusual, and even ordinary freshes last for but a short time. Occasionally, however, the floods are very severe; and from the sharp bend in the course of the river at Phulpárá, 2 miles east of the city of Surat, the waters, rising at times above the level of the left bank, force their way across the land, and, deluging the city, have on more than one occasion caused much loss of life and property. Some particulars have been collected of thirteen floods, ranging over a term of 150 years; and will be found in the *Bombay Gazetteer*, vol. ii. pp. 18 *et seq.* Of these floods, three occurred in the 18th century, in the years 1727, 1776, and 1782; and

ten in the present century, in 1810, 1822, 1835, 1837, 1843, 1849, 1872, 1873, and two in 1876. In all these floods the city of Surat suffered seriously; but up to 1869, nothing in the way of protective works had been undertaken. In that year, however, the Surat municipality determined to construct such protective works as should keep the waters of the river out of the most thickly peopled parts of the city during all floods except those of extraordinary severity. A great part of the town has thus been saved from much inconvenience and injury. But during the past seventeen years (1869–1886), more than one disastrous inundation has occurred.

Though it enjoys a less widespread reputation for sanctity than the Narbadá, the Tápti receives much local respect. On its banks there are, according to the *purána*, or religious history of the river, no fewer than 108 spots, or *tirthas*, of special sanctity. Of these, the chief is Bodhán, about 15 miles east of Surat, where a religious gathering is held once in every twelve years. Ashvani Kumár and Gupteswar, about 2 miles up the river from Surat, are also held in esteem. Both spots are provided with temples, rest-houses, and flights of steps leading down to the water; and here, on several occasions in each year, large numbers come together to bathe. Gupteswar is also a favourite place for burning the dead.

Tápti.—Lighthouse in Surat District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the mainland near Vaux's tomb, at the mouth of the Tápti river, and opposite the village of Dumas, 13 miles west of Surat. It consists of a circular tower of brick, with a spiral stone stair inside. The height of the lantern above high water is 91 feet. It shows a single white, fixed dioptric light, of order four, which illuminates an area of 90 square miles, and is visible from the deck of a ship 15 miles distant.

Ta-pun.—Township of Tharawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; extending from the Pegu Yomas westwards to the Irawadi river. Teak abundant. Ta-pun comprises 10 revenue circles, and covers an area of 375 square miles. Population (1881) 68,704; gross revenue, £12,435.

Ta-pun.—Town in Tharawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 18° 20′ 20″ N., and long. 95° 32′ 10″ E., about 4 miles east of the Myit-ma-ka river. Contains a court-house for the Extra-Assistant Commissioner, a police station, and an inspection bungalow.

Tara (*Thara*).—State in Pálanpur Agency, Bombay Presidency.——*See* KANKREJ.

Tarábganj.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Gonda District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Gonda and Utraula *tahsíls*; on the east by Basti District in the North-Western Provinces; and on the south-east

by the Gogra (Ghagra), separating it from Faizábád and Bara Banki Districts. Area, 657 square miles, of which 370½ square miles are cultivated. Population (1881) 363,012, namely, males 186,630, and females 176,382. Hindus number 336,891; Muhammadans, 26,085; and Christians, 36. Average density, 552 persons per square mile. Of 550 villages, 314 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 126 between five hundred and a thousand; 108 between one and five thousand; and 2 between five and ten thousand. The *tahsíl* comprises the four *parganás* of Nawábganj, Digsar, Mahádewa, and Guwárich. Revenue, £40,541. In 1885, Tarábganj *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 90 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 841.

Táragarh.—Hill fortress in Ajmere-Merwára, Rájputána; perched on the crest of a height overhanging the city of Ajmere, which it commands at every point. Lat. 26° 26′ 20″ N., long. 74° 40′ 15″ E. Height above sea-level, 2855 feet. Built, according to tradition, by the mythical Rájá Aja, from whom Ajmere (Ajmer) derives its name. The fortress played an important part in the early history of the Province, forming the stronghold of all the successive dynasties which occupied the city. It is surrounded on most sides by inaccessible precipices, and is elsewhere defended by a wall some 20 feet thick, and as many high, built of huge blocks of stone, cut and squared. The space within the walls is 80 acres, with an acute salient angle to the south. The fort contains several tanks, filled during the rains with water, which usually suffices for the entire year. Dismantled in 1832, and used since 1860 as a sanitarium for the European troops stationed at Nasirábád (Nusseerábád). On its summit stands the shrine of a Muhammadan martyr, Sayyid Husain, killed in a night attack of the Rahtors and Chauháns (Rájputs) in 1210 A.D. This shrine has an endowment of £436 per annum, derived from the revenues of three villages.

Táragarh.—Hill fort in Nalágarh (Hindúr) State, Punjab; crowns a ridge rising from the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), in lat. 31° 10′ N., and long. 76° 50′ E. Thornton states that during the Gúrkha war of 1814–15 the enemy held this post; but in the operations preparatory to the investment of Maláun, Lieutenant Lawtie succeeded in bringing battering guns to bear upon the fort, which the Gúrkhas at once evacuated.

Tarahwán (or *Tirohán*).—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KARWI.

Tarahwán.—Ancient but decaying town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; situated near the river Paisuni, a quarter of a mile south of Karwí, and 42 miles east of Bánda town. Population (1881) 2751. Magnificent but ruined fort, attributed by tradition to

Rájá Basant Rái, a petty ruler who succeeded the Rájá of Panná 250 years ago. Underground passage, now almost entirely blocked up, said to be a mile in length. Six Hindu temples (two of them ancient) and five mosques. There is a large Muhammadan colony, which is rare in Bundelkhand; it was planted by Rahím Khán, who obtained a grant of Tarahwán, with the title of Nawáb, after Basant Rái's time. The place is noticeable as having been the residence of Amrit Ráo, son of the Peshwá Raghubhái. In 1803, the British Government guaranteed to him and his son a pension of £70,000; and he selected Tarahwán as his home, where he obtained a small *jágír*. Amrit Ráo died in 1824, and was succeeded by his son Benáik Ráo. On the death of the latter, the pension ceased; and his adopted children, Náráyan Ráo and Madhu Ráo, joined the mutineers in 1857, by which act they forfeited their family estates. Náráyan Ráo died a prisoner at Hazáribágh in 1860. Madhu Ráo obtained a pardon in consideration of his youth, and was educated as a Government ward at Bareilly, a provision of £3000 being made in his favour. Balwant Ráo, nephew of Benáik Ráo, owns a few villages in Bánda and Fatehpur Districts, continued to him by a special favour after the Mutiny. Large *bázár* for local trade. Village school. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Tarái ('*Moist Land*'). — British District in the Kumáun Division of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 28° 50′ 30″ and 29° 22′ 30″ N. lat., and between 78° 46′ and 79° 47′ E. long. Area, 938 square miles. Population (1881) 206,993 persons. The District is bounded on the north by Kumáun District; on the east by Nepál and the newly constituted District of Pilibhít; on the south by the Districts of Bareilly and Moradábád and the Native State of Rámpur; and on the west by Bijnaur (Bijnor). The chief town of the District is KASIPUR; but the administrative head-quarters during the summer are at NAINI TAL, in the neighbouring District of Kumáun, where the European officers reside from May to November.

Physical Aspects.—The District consists of a long, narrow strip of country, running for about 90 miles east and west along the foot of the hills, with an average breadth of about 12 miles. The northern boundary is well defined by the commencement of the series of springs which burst from the surface where the waterless forest of the Kumáun *bhábhar* tract ends. (*See* KUMAUN.) These springs, increasing and uniting in their progress, form the numerous streams that intersect the Tarái, which has a slope south-south-east of about 12 feet per mile. The banks of these streams are usually abrupt, and their beds are swampy. Their course is marked by patches of forest, diversified by grassy prairies. Of the rivers that rise in the lower hills, the Saniha joins the eastern border river, the Sárda. The Deoha is the great

river of the Tarái proper, and becomes navigable at Pilibhít. The Sukhi, as its name implies, is dry except in the rainy season; but its bed, uniting with that of the Bahgul, helps, on reaching the Tarái, to form part of the canal system of the Division. The Kichaha (the Gaula of the hills) is subject to heavy floods. Between it and the Kusi are the Paha, Bhakra, Bhaur, and Dabka. The Kusi flows through *parganá* Kásipur. The Phika forms the western boundary. All these rivers eventually join the Rámgangá. The wild animals found in the District are elephants, tigers, bears, leopards, hyænas, wolves, hog, and several kinds of deer.

History, etc. — From the earliest dawn of traditional history in Kumáun, the Tarái is said to have formed an integral part of the Hill Ráj, though exposed to constant incursions from Katehr (Rohilkhand). In the time of Akbar (1556–1605 A.D.), it was known under the name of Naulákhhia or Chaurási Mál—the former from its nominal revenue of 9 *lákhs* of rupees, the latter from its presumed length of 84 *kos*. The records of 1744 show a revenue of about 4 *lákhs* of rupees (say £40,000), which during the Rohillá times dwindled to 2 *lákhs*. A system of blackmail was introduced by the Barwaiks, Mewátis, and other nominal policemen and guards, which resulted in the Tarái becoming a safe resort for banditti and escaped criminals. On the decadence of the Hill State, torn by intestine feuds and Joshi intrigues, Nandram, the Governor of Kásipur, rebelled, and afterwards handed over the territory to the Oudh Nawáb. His nephew Sib Lál was found as the lessee of that potentate when Rohilkhand was ceded to the British in 1802. There was a time, undoubtedly, when the Tarái enjoyed an apparent prosperity, as shown by mango groves, wells, etc. But this time, according to Batten and other authorities, was coincident with that of Maráthá and Rohillá troubles in the adjacent plains, when bad government in the ordinarily habitable parts of the country introduced an extraordinary number of ploughs into the borders of the forest, the resort to that insalubrious tract ceasing when British rule gave peace and prosperity to Rohilkhand. The Government is said to have looked with indifference in early days on this uninviting tract. Since 1831, when Mr. Boulderson revised the revenue settlements, this reproach has become less deserved. The year 1851 saw an able engineer officer, Captain W. Jones, in charge of an improved system of embankments and irrigation. Under his successors, and since the formation of a separate Tarái District in 1861, and its complete subjection to Kumáun management in 1870, the history of this tract has been one of moral as well as material improvement.

Population, etc. — The only section of the inhabitants who reside continuously in the Tarái are the Tharús and Bhúksas. These tribes claim for themselves a Rájput origin, but their real genealogy is un-

known, and they are not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. Their ability to withstand the deadly effects of malaria is very remarkable; and they themselves attribute their safety to their constant consumption of animal food, supplied by wild hog and deer. The population of the Tarái District as at present constituted was returned at 185,658 in 1872, and 206,993 in 1881, showing an increase of 21,335, or 11·5 per cent., in nine years, caused by immigration owing to the spread of cultivation, notwithstanding the high death-rate from fever and bowel complaints. The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 937·8 square miles; number of towns 2, and of villages 563; houses, 33,205. Total population, 206,993, namely, males 113,315, and females 93,678; average density of population, 220·7 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·60; persons per town or village, 366; houses per square mile, 35·4; inmates per house, 6·2.

The religious division of the people returns the Hindus as numbering 131,966; Muhammadans, 74,982; Christians, 11; and Jains, 34. Of the higher castes of Hindus, Bráhmans number 6897; Rájputs, 4295; Baniyás, 7971; Gosáins, 2050; and Káyasths, 2540. The low-caste Chamárs are, however, the most numerous caste in the District, being returned at 18,320, the other principal castes in numerical order being —Kúrmís, 9020; Kahárs, 8722; Málís, 6564; Lodhs, 4508; Gadárias, 2572; Lohárs, 2471; Ahárs, 2393; Bhangís, 2164; Ahírs, 1754; Náis, 1549; Barháis, 1458; Játs, 1438; Dhobís, 1262; and Gújars, 1056. The Muhammadans, with one solitary exception, are returned as belonging to the Sunní sect.

Two towns contain upwards of five thousand inhabitants, namely, KASIPUR, 14,667; and JASHPUR, 7055. The rural population of 185,271 are scattered over the country in 563 small villages, of which 218 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 241 between two hundred and five hundred; 87 between five hundred and a thousand; 15 between one thousand and two thousand; and 2 between two thousand and three thousand.

Agriculture.—The cultivable area amounts to 463 square miles, of which 271 were actually under cultivation at the last estimate. The mode of husbandry is much more primitive than in the plains country to the south; but the soil being naturally fertile, yields an abundant out-turn with very inferior cultivation, and this fact, combined with low rents, is the chief attraction to an immigrant. There is still a large area of waste land, and no pressure of population on the land is felt. As may be supposed, rice is the staple produce; it is sown at three seasons, according to the quality of the crop. Other crops comprise wheat, barley, *joár*, *bájra*, maize, gram, peas, mustard, linseed, sugar-cane, cotton, tobacco, and melons. Ginger, red-pepper, turmeric, and

hemp are also cultivated, but to a very small extent. The total male adult agricultural population in 1881 was 55,455, consisting of—landholders, 393; estate officers, 118; cultivators, 45,235; and agricultural labourers, 9709. Average cultivated area per each male agriculturist, 3·27 acres. The population entirely dependent on the soil, however, numbered 137,054, or 66·2 per cent. of the total population of the District. Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £18,484, or an average of 2s. 1d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £43,741, or an average of 4s. 10d. per cultivated acre.

Natural Calamities.—The moist nature of the country ordinarily saves this tract from drought; but in 1868, some of the villages where irrigation was impracticable suffered from scarcity.

Manufactures and Trade, etc.—There are no manufactures worthy of notice, and the chief trade is the export of grain. Vast herds of cattle graze in the District, belonging to Rohilkhand landholders, and also to the migratory trading Banjáras. The principal roads in the District are—(1) the road running due east and west from the Sárda river to the Bijnaur boundary, which connects all the *parganás*, and is about 90 miles in length; (2) the Moradábád and Naini Tál line, which runs through the Bázpur *parganá* for a distance of 21 miles; (3) the Bareilly and Naini Tál road, 13 miles; and (4) the Moradábád and Ránikhet road, passing through Kásipur *parganá*, and thence to the hill mart of Rámnagar. There are numerous cross roads connected with the above-named main lines, and the communications are ample for the convenience of the people. The Rohilkhand and Kumáun light railway, now open for traffic, runs through the District parallel to the Bareilly-Naini Tál road, with a station at Kichaha.

Revenue, etc.—The civil courts are those of the Superintendent and his Assistant, from whom an appeal lies to the Commissioner of Kumáun in certain cases; and that of the *tahsíldár* of Rúdrapur. The same officers have criminal powers under the Indian Penal Code and Code of Criminal Procedure, and the Rájá of Kásipur is a Special Magistrate for *parganá* Kásipur. Bázpur, Gadarpur, and Rúdrapur have each a Special Native Magistrate. The District is divided into *parganás* Kásipur, Bázpur, Gadarpur, Rúdrapur, Kilpuri, Nánakmata, and Bilhari. The total revenue of the District in 1883 amounted to £24,501, of which £20,039 was derived from the land-tax and grazing dues, the other principal items of revenue being—excise, £1545; provincial rates, £752; and stamps, £366. Total cost of civil administration, as shown by the pay of officials and police, £5792. Except in *parganás* Kásipur and Nánakmata, the proprietary right in the soil is vested in the State alone. The crime of the District is low, consisting principally of cattle thefts committed by wandering clans

of Ahírs, Gújars, and Mewátis, but this is now very much on the decrease. There are 7 police stations in the District, with a regular police force of 129 officers and men. Twelve Government-inspected schools were attended by 506 pupils on the 31st March 1884. This is below the truth, as it excludes some private indigenous schools. The Census Report of 1881 returned 784 boys and 2 girls as under instruction, besides 2450 males and 30 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Climate, etc.—The climate of the Tarái is normally bad; but improvement is gradually following the drainage of swamps, the cutting down of forest, and the spread of cultivation. There is much malarious fever of an intermittent type. During the year 1883, the vital statistics of the District gave 10,005 registered deaths, of which 8614 were due to fever, 788 to bowel complaints, 414 to small-pox, 3 to cholera, and 186 to other causes, making an average mortality of 48 per thousand. Cattle epidemics are frequent and severe, said to be attributed to the climate, and to the want of care in protecting their stock on the part both of cultivators and graziers. [For further information regarding the Tarái, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, Himálayan Districts, vol. xii. part iii., by Mr. E. T. Atkinson, C.S. (Allahábád, 1886).]

Tarái.—Sub-division of Dárjíling District, Bengal. Area, 271 square miles; number of villages, 737; houses, 12,185. Population (1881) 63,241, namely, males 35,410, and females 27,831. Hindus, 55,118; Muhammadans, 6659; Buddhists, 814; Christians, 23; and 'others,' 627. Proportion of males in total population, 55·9 per cent.; average density of population, 233 persons per square mile; persons per village, 86; houses per square mile, 46; inmates per house, 5·2. The head-quarters of the Sub-division are at Silíguri, at the foot of the Himálayas, the terminus of both the Northern Bengal State Railway and the Dárjíling-Himálayan Railways. The Tarái Sub-division contains 43 tea-gardens.

Tárakeswar.—Village and railway station in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 53′ N., long. 88° 4′ E. Famous for its large shrine dedicated to Siva, resorted to by crowds of pilgrims all the year round. This temple is richly endowed with money and lands, supplemented by the offerings of wealthy devotees. It is under the management of a *mahant* or priest, who enjoys its revenues for life. Two large religious gatherings are held annually at Tárakeswar. The first of these, the *Sivarátri*, takes place in February; and the ceremonies enjoined on this day are considered by the followers of Siva to be the most sacred of all their observances. The three essential rites of the *Sivarátri* are, fasting during the day, and holding a vigil and worshipping Siva as the marvellous and interminable Linga (typifying the exaltation of Siva-worship over that of Vishnu and Brahma) during the night. It is

estimated that 20,000 people annually visit the shrine on the occasion of this festival, which occupies only one day. A considerable *melá* or fair held at the same time continues for three days. The second great religious festival is the *Chaitra Sankránti*, falling within April, on the last day of the Hindu month of Chaitra, which is also the day of the swinging festival. The temple is then visited by persons who come for purposes of penance, or to lead a temporary ascetic life in fulfilment of vows made to Siva in the crisis of their lives. The swinging festival of the present day is a very harmless affair compared with what it used to be in olden times, the votaries now being merely suspended by a belt instead of by means of hooks pierced through the fleshy muscles on both sides of the spine. The fair on this occasion lasts six days, and is estimated to be attended by about 15,000 people. Tárakeswar is now the terminus of a short line of railway, 22 miles in length, branching off from the East Indian main line at Seoraphuli, 14 miles from Howrah. The construction of this branch line has immensely increased the popularity of the temple, for the Bengalis love to make their pilgrimages at their ease. [For fuller details, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 324–328.]

Taran Táran.—*Tahsil* and town in Amritsar District, Punjab.—*See* TARN TARAN.

Taráon.—One of the petty States of Bundelkhand, known as the Kálinjar Chaubés, under the political superintendence of the Central India Agency. Area, 12 square miles. Population (1881) 3163; estimated revenue, £2000. Taráon is one of the five shares into which the estates of Rám Kishan Chaubé of Kálinjar were divided in 1817. The *jágírdár* or chief maintains a force of 250 foot-soldiers. The present chief, a Bráhman by caste, is named Chatarbhuj Chaubé. The capital, Taráon Khás, is a small village containing (1881) 909 persons.

Tárápur.—Town in the Native State of Cambay, Bombay Presidency; situated about 12 miles north of Cambay town. Population (1881) 5590, namely, Hindus, 5222; Muhammadans, 303; and Jains, 65.

Tárápur.—Port in Máhim Sub-division, Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 50′ N., long. 72° 42′ 30″ E. It is situated in a low wooded tract on the south bank of the Tárápur creek, 60 miles north of Bombay, 15 miles north of Máhim, and by road 7 miles north-west of Boisar station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. From the village on the north bank of the creek the town is known by the joint name of Tárápur-Chinchni. Population (1881) 2939. The annual average value of the trade for the five years ending 1881–82 was £15,577, namely, imports, £4325; exports, £11,252. The trade in 1881–82 amounted to £15,607—imports, £3352; exports, £12,255.

Tárápur.—Customs Division of ports of Thána District, Bombay Presidency, consisting of Tárápur, Dáhánu, Nawapur, Sátpati, Máhim, Kelva, and Dantivra. The annual average value of the trade for the five years ending 1883–84 was £81,108, namely, imports, £19,506; exports, £61,602. The trade in 1883–84 amounted to £104,278—imports, £30,438; exports, £73,840.

Tárbela.—Town or cluster of villages and hamlets in Haripur *tahsíl*, Hazára District, Punjab; situated about 1 mile from the Indus, in lat. 34° 7′ N., and long. 72° 50′ E., 54 miles due west of Abbottábád. Population (1881) 5304. Head-quarters of a police circle. Inhabited by a purely agricultural community of Utmanzai Patháns. The various parts of Tárbela, though closely adjoining, are separated from one another by cultivated fields.

Tarengá.—Village in Biláspur *tahsíl*, Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2650, namely, Hindus, 1861; Satnámis, 362; Kabírpanthís, 82; Muhammadans, 149; and non-Hindu aborigines, 196.

Tárgáon.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 16 miles east of Unao town, in lat. 26° 31′ 50″ N., and long. 80° 38′ 50″ E. Founded about 400 years ago by Tára Singh, who, when out hunting, was delighted with the appearance of the place, cleared the jungle, and built a residence here. Population (1881) 4232, namely, Hindus 4082, and Muhammadans 150. Two weekly markets. Famous for the manufacture of glass bracelets.

Tárí.—Village in Zamániah *tahsíl*, Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 34′ 6″ N., and long. 83° 38′ 56″ E., 2 miles from Gházípur city, and 9 miles from Zamániah. Population (1881) 1481. The terminus of the branch line of railway from Dildárnagar to Tárí *ghát* is situated in this village.

Tárí Barágáon.—Village in Rasrá *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Nagrá-Azamgarh road, 10 miles from Rasrá town. Population (1881) 3180. The village contains six sugar refineries and 20 looms. Primary school.

Tarikere.—*Táluk* in the north-east of Kadúr District, Mysore State. Area, 372 square miles, of which 42 are cultivated. Population (1881) 73,585, namely, males 36,184, and females 37,401. Hindus number 70,500; Muhammadans, 2982; Christians, 101; and 'others,' 2. The surface is diversified by hill and plain, and yields a great variety of crops. A portion of the BABA BUDAN mountains is included, on the slopes of which are coffee plantations. At the foot of the hills, iron-ore is worked. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil court; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 50 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 327. Revenue, £12,520.

Tarikere (lit. '*The Tank of the Tárí Tree*'—Borassus flabelliformis).

—Town in Kadúr District, Mysore, 30 miles south of Chikmagalúr, and head-quarters of Tarikere *táluk*. Lat. 13° 42′ 20″ N., long. 75° 51′ E. Population (1881) 5266, namely, Hindus, 4209; Muhammadans, 1053; and Christians, 4. Tarikere is thought to occupy the site of a town called Kátur, founded at the end of the 12th century by one of the Ballálá kings. The present fort was erected, and the name of Tarikere conferred, in 1569, by a *pálegár* of Basvapatna, to whose family the surrounding country was granted by the Mughals. They continued in possession until 1761, when Haidar Alí annexed the territory to Mysore, but awarded the chief a maintenance allowance. The representative of the line took a leading part in the disturbances of 1830, which resulted in the assumption of the government of Mysore by the British. His son continued at large fomenting disloyalty until 1834, when he was seized and hanged.

Tarn Táran.—Southern *tahsíl* of Amritsar (Umritsur) District, Punjab; consisting throughout of an unbroken plain, most of which is under cultivation. Area, 596 square miles, with 343 towns and villages, 31,705 houses, and 58,003 families. Total population, 261,676, namely, males 143,013, and females 118,663. Average density of population, 440 persons per square mile. Muhammadans number 104,556; Sikhs, 91,957; Hindus, 65,156; and Christians, 7. Of the 343 towns and villages in the *tahsíl*, 157 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 110 between five hundred and a thousand; 54 between one and two thousand; 11 between two and three thousand; 9 between three and five thousand; and 2 between five and ten thousand. Average area under cultivation for the five years 1877–78 to 1881-82, 511 square miles, or 326,871 acres, the principal crops being—wheat, 96,437 acres; gram, 78,115 acres; *joár*, 37,444 acres; Indian corn, 27,710 acres; barley, 16,108 acres; *moth*, 8661 acres; rice, 4473 acres; sugar-cane, 14,396 acres; cotton, 5450 acres; and vegetables, 9151 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £29,389. The local administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and a *munsif*, who preside over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 66 men; rural police or village watch (*cháukídárs*), 369.

Tarn Táran.—Town and municipality in Amritsar (Umritsur) District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Tarn Táran *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 31° 28′ N., and long. 74° 58′ E., on the Amritsar and Málwá road, 12 miles south of Amritsar city, near the junction of the Beas (Biás) and Sutlej rivers. Population (1881) 3210, namely, Muhammadans, 1089; Sikhs, 1077; and Hindus, 1044. Number of houses, 628. Municipal income (1883–84), £536, or an average of 3s. 4d. per head. The town was founded by Gúrú Arjun, son and successor of Gúrú Rám Dás (the builder of Amritsar). Arjun constructed in the

town a magnificent tank, and erected by its side a Sikh temple. This tank has the reputation of possessing miraculous powers on all persons afflicted with leprosy who can swim across it, whence the town derives its name. Ranjit Singh greatly revered the temple at Tarn Táran, and overlaid it with plates of copper gilt, besides richly ornamenting it. On the north side of the tank stands a lofty column, erected by Prince Náo Nihál Singh. Tarn Táran ranks as the capital of the Manjha, or heart of the Bári Doáb, a central tract running from Amritsar to below Kasúr in Lahore District. This region is historically famous as the stronghold of the Sikh people, and still forms the great recruiting ground for the native army. Small trade with Amritsar. Manufacture of iron vessels. The Sobráon branch of the Bári Doáb Canal flows within a short distance of the town, and from this the great tank is supplied with water through a channel constructed at the expense of the Rájá of Jínd. Court-house, police station, *sarái* (native inn), dispensary, post-office, schoolhouse. Leper asylum outside the town, for the relief of the afflicted poor of Amritsar and Lahore Districts. Suburb inhabited by a tribe of lepers, who claim descent from Gúrú Arjun, who was himself, according to tradition, a sufferer from the disease.

Tárobá.—Lake in Chándá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 20′ N., and long. 79° 22′ E., 14 miles east of Segáon, in a basin of the Chimúr Hills, at a considerable height above the plain. It is of great depth, and though artifically embanked at one point, has the appearance of a natural lake. Long ago, a marriage procession of Gaulís from the west was passing through these hills. They sought for water in vain, when a weird old man bade the bride and bridegroom dig together for a spring. As they dug, a clear fountain leapt forth, and spread into a wide lake, under the depths of which the marriage party still dwell. By the lake side a palm-tree grew up, which flourished during the day, but every evening sank into the earth. A rash pilgrim one morning seated himself on the tree-top, and was borne into the skies, where the flames of the sun consumed him. The palm then shrivelled into dust, and in its place appeared an image of Tárobá, the spirit of the lake. Formerly, at the call of pilgrims, vessels for their use would rise from the waters. At last, however, an evil man, instead of restoring the vessels to the lake, bore them away to his home. They quickly vanished, and pilgrims now call for them in vain. Still, however, the country folk hear faint sounds of drums and trumpets passing round the lake; and old men yet live who, when the waters sank low in a dry year, descried dimly in the depths the golden pinnacles of a fairy temple. The lake attracts many worshippers, especially in December and January, wives yearning for children, and sick men praying for health. A Gond performs the sacred rites of the god. The fish grow to a large size; the skeleton of one stranded measured 8 feet in length.

Taroch (*Tirhoch*).—One of the Simla Hill States, under the political superintendence of the Punjab Government; lying between 30° 55′ and 31° 3′ N. lat., and between 77° 37′ and 77° 51′ E. Area, 67 square miles, with 44 villages, 538 houses, and 549 families; total population (1881) 3216, all Hindus, with the exception of 6 Muhammadans. Taroch formerly constituted a part of Sirmur (Sarmor) State. When it fell under the dominion of the British, Thákur Karam Singh was the nominal chief; but, on account of his great age and infirmities, his brother Jhobu conducted the administration. In 1819 a *sanad* was bestowed on Jhobu, conferring, after his brother's death, the State on him and his heirs. This *sanad* was confirmed in 1843 by another granted to Thákur Ranjít Singh, in which claims for forced labour (*begar*) were commuted for a payment of £28. The present (1885) chief, Thákur Kedar Singh, is a minor, and the State is administered by a council. The revenue is estimated at £600. The military force is 80 men.

Taroli.—Village in Chháta *tahsíl*, Muttra (Mathura) District; situated in lat. 27° 40′ 46″ N., long. 77° 37′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 2380. Merely an agricultural village, with a large temple of Rádhá-Gobind, at which an annual fair is held on the full moon of Kártik (October–November) and the two preceding days. Weekly market.

Tásgáon.—Sub-division of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 341 square miles. Population (1872) 87,975; (1881) 79,704, namely, males 40,004, and females 39,700; occupying 11,356 houses, in 2 towns and 47 villages. Hindus number 69,367; Muhammadans, 3955; and 'others,' 6382. Tásgáon in the south-east is bróken up by many patches of Sángli and Miráj States. The whole of the Sub-division is rather low, especially the land near the meeting of the Yerla and the Kistna. The northern and eastern portions are rocky and barren, cut by ranges of low hills which branch from the Khánápur plateau. The west and south-west on and near the great rivers form a continuation of the rich plain of the eastern Wálva, and like it are well wooded with mango and *babúl* (Acacia arabica). The only important rivers are the Kistna, forming the western boundary; and the Yerla, which enters near the middle of the Sub-division from the north. Near the Kistna and Yerla the soil is rich black. Towards the north-east, the soil is rocky and barren. In 1882–83, the number of holdings, including alienated lands in Government villages, was 6064, with an average area of 23·15 acres. In 1881–82, the area under actual cultivation was 102,301 acres, of which 177 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and pulses occupied 77,517 acres; pulses, 16,243 acres; oil-seeds, 3209 acres; fibres, 3388 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 2121 acres. In 1882–83 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts;

police circle (*thánd*), 1; regular police, 54 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 161. Land revenue, £17,519.

Tásgáon.—Chief town of the Tásgáon Sub-division of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency; situated 60 miles south-east of Sátára city, and 85 miles north of Belgáum, in lat. 17° 1′ 59″ N., and long. 74° 38′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 10,206, namely, males 5179, and females 5027. Hindus number 8931; Muhammadans, 920; Jains, 351; and Párs'is, 4. The town stands on rising ground on the north bank of a stream which flows into the Yerla about 4 miles to the south-west. Municipal income (1883–84), £469; incidence of taxation, 10¾d. per head. Besides the Sub-divisional revenue and police offices, Tásgáon has a sub-judge's court, dispensary, travellers' bungalow, and four schools, of which one is for girls. Native library.

Tatiparthi.—Hill pass leading across the Eastern Ghâts from Vizagapatam District to Jaipur *zamíndárí*, Madras Presidency. The pass is better known as Minamalúr *ghát*. Connects the town of Madgole with Jaipur in the Agency tract of the District. The village of Tatiparthi is at the foot of the pass, and that of Minamalúr at the top.

Tatta (*Thato*).—*Táluk* of Jerruck Sub-division, Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1323 square miles. Population (1872) 37,926; (1881) 39,750, namely, males 21,600, and females 18,150; occupying 7665 houses, in 1 town and 29 villages. Muhammadans number 32,773; Hindus, 6412; Sikhs, 510; Christians, 33; Jews, 10; aborigines, 7; and Párs'is, 5. In 1882–83, the area assessed for land revenue was 28,192 acres; and area under actual cultivation, 23,728 acres. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 11; regular police, 91 men. Revenue, £4518.

Tatta (*Thato*; known among the inhabitants as *Nagar Thato*).—Chief town of Tatta *táluk* in Jerruck Sub-division, Karáchí District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 24° 44′ N., and long. 68° E., about 7 miles west of the right bank of the Indus; distant about 50 miles east from Karáchí (Kurrachee), 32 miles south-south-west from Jerruck, and 24 miles north-east from Mírpur Sakro. Population (1881) 8830, namely, Muhammadans, 4475; Hindus, 4081; Christians, 7; and 'others,' 267. The town is built on a slight eminence in an alluvial valley at the foot of the Makli Hills. It would appear to have been at one time insulated by the waters of the Indus; and to this day, after the subsidence of the annual inundation, numerous stagnant pools are left which infect the air, producing a bad form of fever which has made Tatta notoriously unhealthy at particular seasons of the year. It was mainly from this cause, combined with the unwholesome water of the place, that the British troops stationed here in 1839 suffered such serious mortality. Tatta is most easily and speedily reached from Karáchí by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway as far

as Jangsháhi, whence a metalled road, 13 miles long, leads directly to the town itself. Head-quarters of a *múkhtiárkár* and *tappádár*, and a police *tháná*. Tatta is a municipality with an income in 1883–84 of £1169; incidence of taxation, 2s. 2½d. per head. It has a Government Anglo-vernacular school, a boys' and a girls' vernacular school, besides several private schools, a post-office, dispensary, and subordinate jail. The civil and criminal court-house is situate on the Makli Hills, close to the town, where also is the Deputy Collector's bungalow, formerly one of the tombs.

The population of Tatta has fallen off very much during the past century. Hamilton, who visited the town in 1699, calls it a large and rich city, about 3 miles long and 1½ broad. He states that 80,000 persons had, a short time previous to his visit, died of the plague, and that one-half of the city was in consequence uninhabited. It is also related by Pottinger, that when the Persian king Nádir Sháh entered Tatta at the head of his army in 1742, there were 40,000 weavers, 20,000 other artisans, and 60,000 dealers of various kinds. In 1840, the number of inhabitants was variously estimated at from 10,000 to 40,000; but the late Captain J. Wood (of the Indian navy), who had good opportunities of judging in this respect, estimated in 1837 the number of tradesmen and artificers at 982, and the entire population at not more than 10,000. The present trade of Tatta is not a tithe of what it once was. It consists mostly of silk and cotton manufactures and grain. *Lúngís* (scarves or shawls), a thick, rich, and variegated fabric of cotton and silk, are still made, but not to the same extent as formerly. Coarse cotton fabrics, both plain and coloured, are also woven to some extent, but they have been greatly superseded by the cheaper Manchester goods. In 1758, a factory was established at Tatta during the reign of Ghulám Sháh Kalhora by the East India Company, but it was withdrawn in 1775. Again, in 1799, another commercial mission was attempted under the same auspices, but this, like the former, terminated unsatisfactorily. The house belonging to the factory at Tatta was, up to 1839, in good repair, and in that year it was occupied by a portion of the British garrison. In 1837, the total silk and cotton manufactures of Tatta were valued at £41,400, and the imports of British goods at £3000. At present, the entire value of the local import trade, comprising upwards of twenty different articles, appears to average between 4 and 5 *lákhs* of rupees (say £40,000 to £50,000), the largest items being grain, *ghí*, sugar, and raw silk. The exports are but few in number, consisting only of silk manufactures, grain, cotton cloth, and hides. As regards the transit trade, a portion of the grain received from Haidarábád *táluk* and the Sháhbandar and Sehwán Sub-divisions finds its way through this town to Karáchí and the neighbouring hill country.

Among the ancient remains of Tatta may be mentioned the Jamá Masjid and fort. The town itself is undoubtedly of great antiquity, and it has by some been supposed to be the Patála of the ancients. Outram assigns its foundation to the year 1445, but other writers state that it was not founded before 1522. The general opinion is that the former date is the more correct, and that the town owes its rise to a prince of the Samma dynasty, Jám Nizám-ud-dín (commonly called Jám Ninda), whose tomb is to this day pointed out among others on the Makli Hills. In 1555, Tatta is said by Postans to have been pillaged and burnt by Portuguese mercenaries. In 1591 it was again destroyed during the invasion of Sind by Akbar. The Jamá Masjid, by far the finest building in Tatta, is supposed to have been commenced in 1644 by order of the Mughal Emperor, Sháh Jahán, as a memorial of his regard for the inhabitants, he having been permitted to pay his devotions in the former chief mosque during his flight from his father Jahángír. The building is rectangular in shape, 315 feet long by 190 feet wide, and covers a space of 6316 square yards. The interior is beautifully painted in encaustic, the delicacy and harmony of the colouring being remarkable; there are also some very elegant specimens of perforated stonework in different parts of the mosque. It is said to have cost, in all, 9 *lákhs* of rupees; and it would, in all probability, like the tombs on the Makli Hills, have long since fallen into decay, had not the inhabitants of Tatta, by subscriptions raised amongst themselves, assisted by a money grant from the British Government, put the building into substantial repair. The fort of Tatta was commenced about 1699, during the reign of Aurangzeb, by Nawáb Hafiz-ullá, but it was never completed. The foundation has now been almost entirely removed to provide material for building purposes.

Tattamangalam.—Town in the Chittúr District of Cochin State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 41′ N., long. 76° 46′ E. Population (1871) 8894, inhabiting 1784 houses; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. *Munsif's* court.

Taung-bek-myo. — Southern township of Sandoway District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma; occupying the whole tract between the Arakan Yomas and the Bay of Bengal, from the Sa-wa river southwards to the Gwa (Khwa). It has an area of 1110 square miles, and is divided into 6 revenue circles. Population (1881) 12,112. The country is very mountainous, and drained by many small streams, with a general easterly or westerly course. The Gwa, the principal river, forms a good harbour, but the entrance is impracticable for large vessels, owing to a bar. The chief products of the township are rice, tobacco, sesamum, sugar-cane, *dhaní* (Nipa fruticans), plantains, cotton, pepper, madder, mulberry, cocoa-nuts, and vegetables. The exports are sesamum seed and oil, silk, madder, cotton, sugar, torches, *nga-pí*

or fish-paste, dried and salt fish, turtle eggs, and cattle. The imports comprise cotton, woollen, and silk piece-goods and twist, and lacquered ware. Communication is carried on inland by means of the beds of mountain streams, which are very dangerous during the monsoons. The gross revenue of the township amounted in 1874–75 to £2677; in 1881–82, after the transfer of two circles to Sandoway Myoma township of Sandoway District, it was £1984.

Taung-gup.—Village in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma, and head-quarters of the Taung-gup or northern township; situated in lat. 18° 49′ 50″ N., and long. 94° 19′ 50″ E., about 6 miles from the mouth of the Taung-gup river. Contains a court-house, police station, and telegraph office. Population (1881) 2570. An important road across the Yoma mountains, from Taung-gup into Pegu, was made shortly after annexation.

Taung-gup.—River in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma; rising in the western slopes of the Arakan Hills, and passing the village of Taung-gup, falls into the sea a little south of Ramri. Two large low islands divide its mouth into three channels.

Taung-läung-su.—Village in the Henzada township, Henzada District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. Population (1878) 3081. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Taung-ngu.—British District in the Tenasserim Division of Lower Burma, lying between lat. 17° 37′ and 19° 28′ N., and between long. 95° 53′ and 96° 53′ E. Area, 6354 square miles. Population (1881) 128,848 souls. Bounded on the north by Upper Burma, from which it is separated by a line of masonry pillars, marking the frontier fixed by Lord Dalhousie in 1853; on the east by a mountain range known as the 'Great Watershed;' on the south by Shwe-gyin District; and on the west by the Pegu Yomas. Head-quarters at TAUNG-NGU Town.

Physical Aspects.—The District is crossed by three mountain ranges,—the Pegu Yomas, and the Paung-laung and Nat-taung or 'Great Watershed' chains,—all with a general north and south direction, and covered for the most part with dense forest. The average elevation of the YOMAS is here between 800 and 1200 feet. The hills between the 'Great Watershed' and the Sittaung river on the east average between 2000 and 3000 feet in height, and are clothed in parts with pines; still farther east are the Nat-taung Mountains, with one peak 8000 feet above sea-level. These ranges send out numerous spurs. They are of granite, and exhibit on the east an almost perfectly crystalline structure. The rest of Taung-ngu forms the upper portion of the valley of the Sittaung river, which on the east has an average breadth of 5, and on the west of 20 miles. Near the frontier this tract is very rugged, and cultivation can only be effected in patches on the slopes

of the hills. The soil is a tenacious sandy alluvium, and towards the north large masses of fossil wood occur. In the vicinity of Taung-ngu town are plains, which increase in breadth south of the town. The Sittaung (Sitoung) is the only large river in the District. Its chief tributaries are the Swa, Ka-baung, Pyu, Thauk-ye-gat, and Yauk-thwa-wa, all navigable for some distance of their course.

The geology of the District is described in Mr. Theobald's *Records of the Geological Survey of India*, vol. x. part 2, pp. 73 *et seq.* Limestone appears in places east of the Sittaung river, and north-east of Taung-ngu town a light grey marble is quarried. The principal timber trees are *in* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus), *pyin-ma* (Lagerstrœmia Flos-Reginæ), *pyin-gado* (Xylia dolabriformis), *ka-nyin* (Dipterocarpus alatus), *thin-gan* (Hopea odorata), *pa-douk* (Pterocarpus indicus), teak (Tectona grandis), *sha* (Acacia Catechu), and varieties of Dalbergia, Acacia, etc.

History.—According to the palm-leaf histories, A-thaw-ka (Asoka), in 321 B.C., sent for the chiefs of Taung-ngu, and giving them various relics of Gautama, directed them to transport them to Taung-ngu and to erect pagodas over them. From this time till the close of the 12th century A.D. the history of Taung-ngu is blank. In 1191, Na-ra-pa-di-si-thu, King of Pagan, whose name appears in Tavoyan, Talaing, Burman, and Taung-ngu histories, and who is everywhere described as a religious monarch who did much to establish Buddhism in Burma and the adjacent countries, came down the Irawadi, and sailing out to sea, entered the Sittaung, and ascended as far as Taung-ngu in search, it is said, of the pagodas built some 1500 years before by A-thaw-ka. The pagodas were found, and were cleaned and repaired. Na-ra-pa-di-si-thu appointed a governor, which seems to show that at this period Taung-ngu was subject to Pagan. A successor of this governor removed the seat of government to a spot on the banks of the Swa, about 20 miles north of the present town of Taung-ngu.

The country increased in prosperity until 1256, when Wa-ri-yu, the King of Martaban, marched northwards and invaded Taung-ngu, and, having taken Tha-won-lek-ya prisoner, sent him to Byu, a village about 14 miles south of Shwe-gyin. His sons, in 1279, built a town on a hill, which they called Taung-ngu, from *taung*, a hill, and *ngu*, a projecting spur. At about the same time that these two princes founded Taung-ngu, a man called Karen-ba established a settlement on the eastern bank of the Sittaung, which was called Karen-myo or Karen city. The brothers having heard of this, and finding that the site which they had selected was too small, entered into communication with Karen-ba, and the three agreed to found a new town, which they did in 1299, and called it Da-nya-wa-di. Tha-won-gyi was declared king, Tha-won-ngay heir-apparent, and Karen-ba prime minister. The

Pagan kingdom had begun to decline in 1250, and the reigning sovereign had been unable to come to Tha-won-lek-ya's aid when he was attacked by Wa-ri-yu, and for many years the whole country was torn by internal dissensions. Taung-ngu thus remained without interference from the north or from the south, and Tha-won-gyi was enabled to consolidate his kingdom. He was murdered in 1317, after a reign of eighteen years, by his brother Tha-won-ngay, who ascended the throne, and died in 1324, after a reign of seven years.

Karen-ba then usurped the kingdom, and died in 1342, after a reign of eighteen years, and was succeeded by his son-in-law Lek-ya-ze-ya-thin-gyaw, whose younger brother Tauk-lek-ya wrested the government from him in 1344, and was in his turn deposed two years later by one Thin-pan-ka. The latter died in 1363, and was succeeded by his son Pyaw-kyi-gyi, who at the time of his father's death was staying with the King of Pegu. Pyaw-kyi-gyi entered into an alliance with the Talaing king, then at enmity with the rulers of Ava and Prome, the latter of whom, like so many other petty princes, had declared himself independent; and having thus incurred their displeasure, he was invited to Prome and there treacherously murdered. His son Pyaw-kyi-ngay and his nephew Saw-ka-det, who had accompanied him, escaped, and for three months were engaged in wresting the throne of Taung-ngu from the regent, who, on hearing of the king's death, had seized it. Pyaw-kyi-ngay was proclaimed king in 1370; and in 1374 he was succeeded by Saw-ka-det, who, hated by his people, was murdered in 1378 by a Pun-gyi, or priest, who seized the sceptre. Whilst on his way to visit the King of Ava, his Shan subjects rebelled and seized Taung-ngu; he returned at once, and succeeded in recapturing the royal city, when he put all the Shans to death. He was succeeded in 1392 by his son Saw-u, who after a year was deposed by the King of Ava, and one Ta-ra-pya appointed in his stead. A successor declared war against Ava, and conquered several of the States tributary to that kingdom. Some years later, he made an alliance with the King of Pegu, the great Ra-za-di-rit, to whom he gave his daughter in marriage; and in 1417, the two sovereigns attacked Prome. The army of the King of Taung-ngu, consisting of 20,000 infantry, 1000 cavalry, and 200 elephants, under the command of Thamaing Pa-yun, crossed the Yomas, while that of the King of Pegu, composed of 5000 men in 700 boats, commanded by Ba-nya Pa-thein, ascended the Irawadi. Prome was taken, and with it much booty, including the royal white elephant.

From this time until the beginning of the 16th century, the interference in the affairs of the kingdom, both by the King of Ava and by the King of Pegu, was continual; and the kings of Taung-ngu were little else than governors appointed sometimes by one power, sometimes by the other. About 1485, the capital was transferred to the site of the

present city of Taung-ngu, and the independence of the Taung-ngu kingdom was secured by the capture of Ava in 1526. In 1538, a descendant of the founder of the modern Taung-ngu overran the whole kingdom of Pegu, and was proclaimed king of that country. This prince built the golden palace in Taung-ngu, the ruins of which are still to be seen, and erected the SHWE SAN-DAW PAGODA. He died in 1606, and was succeeded by his son, Nat-shin-naung-thi-ri-maha-dhamma-raza, the last independent King of Taung-ngu. Pegu had been utterly despoiled, and as the power of that kingdom sank, that of their hereditary rivals and fierce foes, the Burmese, rose. Philip de Brito y Nicote had seized the country in the name of the King of Portugal, and entered into an alliance with Maha-thi-ha-thu-ra-dhamma-raza, but he quarrelled with Nat-shin-naung-thi-ri-maha-dhamma-raza, and captured Taung-ngu. Pegu was eventually conquered by the King of Burma in 1612, and Taung-ngu never regained its independence.

Population.—In 1855–56, the population of Taung-ngu District was returned at 34,957; by 1872 the numbers had risen to 86,166; by 1878 to 89,228. The last Census of 1881 showed a total of 128,848, residing in 1 town and 835 villages. Number of occupied houses, 27,708; unoccupied, 2150. Average number of persons per village or town, 154; persons per occupied house, 4·65. The total area, taken at 6354 square miles, gave the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 20·3; villages or towns per square mile, 0·13; occupied houses per square mile, 4·3. Classified according to sex, there were—males 68,484, and females 60,364; proportion of males, 55·7 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 26,591, and girls 24,389; total children, 50,980, or 39·6 per cent. of the population: above 15 years, males 41,893, and females 35,975; total adults, 77,868, or 60·4 per cent. The Census of 1881 returned the boat population of Lower Burma—people who in the dry season travel about the numerous creeks and rivers, live in their boats, and are engaged in trades of various kinds. In Taung-ngu District, the boat population numbered 709, or 0·6 per cent. of the total, namely, males 661, and females 48, living in 215 boats.

The religious division showed the following results:—Buddhists, 93,997; Christians, 18,191; Nat-worshippers, or non-Buddhist indigenous races, whose sole religion consists in a kind of worship of spirits or 'demons,' supposed to reside in natural objects and to interfere with mankind, 12,612; Hindus, 2086; and Muhammadans, 1962.

The indigenous and Indian races who inhabited Taung-ngu District, according to the 'language table' of the Census Report were—Burmese and Arakanese, 83,487; Karens, 27,630; Shans, 12,169; Hindustánís, 1603; Tamils, 904; Telugus, 807; Taungthus, 726; Talaings, 291; Karennís, 244; Chinese, 137; Bengálís, 74; Malay-

álams, 19; Uriyás, 12; and 'others,' 23. The Yabaings and Shans are more numerous in Taung-ngu than in any other part of Lower Burma. The Yabaings are found almost entirely on the slopes of the Pegu Yomas; their main employment is the cultivation of the mulberry-tree and the rearing of silkworms, an occupation seldom or never adopted by the Burmese. Nothing is known of their history or traditions; their nominal religion is Buddhism. They are almost indistinguishable from the Burmese in feature; and if they ever had a language of their own, it is now extinct, or become a mere dialect of Burmese. The Census of 1881 returned only 436 as speaking the Yabaing language in the whole Province.

The Christians according to race were—Europeans and Americans, 629; Eurasians, 114; and native converts, 17,448. According to sect, there were—members of the Church of England, 1546; Roman Catholics, 5005; Baptists, 11,510; and of 'other' Churches, 130. Of the total native converts, 11,476 were Baptists, 4904 Roman Catholics, 982 members of the Church of England, and 86 of 'other' Churches.

The Census of 1881 distributed the population into six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind, and members of the learned professions—males 3036, and females 131; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers—males 581, and females 150; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc.—males 2249, and females 1217; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners—males 25,519, and females 20,585; (5) industrial class, including manufacturers and artisans—males 7490, and females 7995; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, children, and persons of unspecified occupation—males 29,609, and females 30,286.

Of the 836 towns and villages in Taung-ngu District, 663 in 1881 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 154 from two to five hundred; 18 from five hundred to one thousand; and 1 from fifteen to twenty thousand. The only town in the District is TAUNG-NGU, the civil and military head-quarters; population (1881) 17,199.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supported (1881) 75,838 persons, or 58·86 per cent. of the population. In 1881, of the total area of the District (6354 square miles), only 75 square miles were returned as under cultivation; the area cultivable was 3226 square miles; and uncultivable, 3053 square miles. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, in the same year, £5461; average incidence of assessment, including local rates and cesses, 2s. 3⅜d. per acre of cultivated land paying revenue.

Of rice, some thirty varieties are grown. In the plains, the seed is either sown broadcast in inundated fields, or is reared in nurseries and transplanted in June. Tobacco and cotton thrive well. Sesamum

is grown in the *taungyas* or hill gardens. In the experimental garden near Taung-ngu town, tea, coffee, cocoa, black pepper, nutmeg, cinchona, and potatoes have all been tried. All these grow fairly well; in time, perhaps, some of them may become staple products of the District; but as yet (1884) none have been commercially successful, except potatoes, which are now being grown for the local market by Karens on the Taung-ngu hills. Mr. Petley, of the same region, is the only European planter in Burma who has persisted for several years together. His coffee, his tea, and his cinchona for the first time covered the cost of production in 1884. In 1883–84, the total area under cultivation in the District was 58,279 acres. Rice occupied 51,422 acres; oil-seeds, 54 acres; sugar-cane, 234 acres; tobacco, 43 acres; vegetables, 954 acres; cocoa-nut, 4 acres; areca-nut, 35 acres; plantains, 560 acres; mixed fruit-trees, 941; and *taungyas* (hill-gardens), 4032 acres. The average produce per acre was—rice, 900 lbs.; oil-seeds, 560 lbs.; sugar, 2800 lbs.; tobacco, 280 lbs.; plantains, 1400 lbs.; tea, 13 lbs. The average rent per acre of land suited for—rice, 2s. 1⅞d.; oil-seeds, sugar, or tobacco, 3s.; plantains, 2s. 10½d. The agricultural live stock consisted of—cows and bullocks, 10,221; buffaloes, 15,144; horses and ponies, 426; sheep and goats, 1263; pigs, 13,123; elephants, 110: dead stock—ploughs, 6941; carts, 4879; boats, 687.

Prices have risen, and the wealth of the people has increased considerably, during the last thirty or forty years. Rice has risen by about 25 per cent. Fish, the principal article of food after rice, costs (1883–84) 1s. per *ser* of 21 lbs. In 1883–84, the prices of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. were—rice, 7s. 1⅞d.; tobacco, £1, 14s. 6d.; *jaggery*, 9s. 2½d.; linseed, 14s. 4½d. A plough bullock costs £5, a sheep or goat £1. The daily wages of a skilled artisan are 4s.; of unskilled workmen, 1s.

Commerce, etc.—The exports from Taung-ngu District comprise areca-nuts, *nga-pi* or fish-paste, tobacco, silk, cotton and woollen piece-goods, raw silk, and salt. The main imports are timber, lacquered ware, pickled tea, sesamum, silk and cotton piece-goods, jaggery and molasses, cutch, garlic, cattle, and ponies. The bulk of the export trade finds an exit by the Sittaung river. An increasing traffic is carried on overland with the Shan States. The value of this trade in 1872–73 was £179,742; in 1882–83, £199,243. The principal manufactures are silk, saltpetre, and gunpowder. The Yabaings and Karens rear silkworms, and supply the market with raw silk.

The rivers form the chief means of communication during the rainy season. The 'Royal road' from Pegu to Taung-ngu, which had become a mere cart-track, has been utilized for the Sittaung Valley State Railway, nearly 60 miles of which lie within this District. A road from Taung-ngu to Thayet-myo is in course of construction.

Administration.—Shortly before the annexation of Pegu, the revenue of Taung-ngu District amounted to £3006. In 1855–56, the total revenue was £9405. In 1863, customs were abolished, and this at first affected the returns, but in 1873 the total income of Taung-ngu was £18,836. In 1883–84 the gross revenue was returned at £14,738, of which £5695 was derived from the land. The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner and Assistants, presiding over 10 civil and 11 criminal courts. Police force (1883), 440 officers and men. Jail at Taung-ngu town, with a daily average of 218 prisoners in 1883. Education is mainly in the hands of the Buddhist monks. Several schools in Taung-ngu town. Total number of schools, public, private, and indigenous, in 1883–84, 434, attended by 5735 pupils. The Census of 1881 returned 9958 males and 1675 females as under instruction, besides 23,263 males and 1161 females able to read and write but not under instruction. One municipality in the District, viz. Taung-ngu, with a municipal revenue in 1883–84 of £8475.

Medical Aspects.—The average monthly mean temperature for the five years ending 1881 was—January, 70·9° F.; February, 73·1°; March, 80·8°; April, 84·9°; May, 83°; June, 78·5°; July, 78·7°; August, 78·2°; September, 79·9°; October, 80·3°; November, 77·9°; and December, 73·4° F.: annual mean, 77·5° F. The average annual rainfall for twelve years ending 1881 was 75·77 inches; the rainfall in 1883 was 79·88 inches. The vital statistics of 1883 show a total of 1682 recorded deaths, being at the rate of 13 per thousand. The hospital and dispensary at Taung-ngu town relieved 747 in-door and 10,131 out-door patients; of these, 2375 were fever cases. [For further information regarding Taung-ngu District, see *The British Burma Gazetteer*, compiled by authority (Rangoon Government Press, 1879), vol. ii. pp. 806–830. Also see the *British Burma Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of British Burma from 1880 to 1884.]

Taung-ngu.—Township in Taung-ngu District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. The whole of the western portion is intersected by spurs of the Yoma range. Population (1881) 41,819; gross revenue, £5993.

Taung-ngu.—Chief town of Taung-ngu District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma, and the northern terminus of the Sittaung Valley State Railway; situated on the right bank of the Sittaung river, 170 miles from Rangoon by land, and 295 miles by water, and 37 miles in a direct line from the frontier of Upper Burma. Lat. 18° 55′ 30″ N., long. 96° 31′ 10″ E.

Taung-ngu town is regularly laid out. It contains a good *bázár*, court-houses, jail, hospital and dispensary, Roman Catholic chapel, Anglican church, Baptist and Karen normal schools, and

several police stations. The cantonment is ordinarily occupied by a wing of a European regiment, a regiment of Madras Native infantry, and a battery of artillery. On the west, inside the old wall, is a sheet of water about 1½ mile in length and half a mile in breadth; and surrounding the town is the old fosse, 170 feet broad, which during the rainy season always contains water. The site of the town is slightly higher than the surrounding country, which is open and cultivated in parts. During the rainy season, when the water is retained in the rice-fields, it becomes an extensive marsh. Large suburbs, chiefly to the east and south, are included within the municipal limits. The first town founded on the present site was Dwa-ya-wa-di, now known as Myo-gyí, a suburb of the existing town, which was built towards the end of the 15th century by a usurper named Min-gyi-nyo, who subsequently, in 1510, founded Taung-ngu, or, as it was then called, Ke-tu-ma-ti. Inside the walls he built a palace, the ruins of which are still in existence, and converted loathsome swamps into four ornamental lakes. During the second Anglo-Burmese war (1852–53), the town surrendered to the British, who took possession without firing a shot.

Population (1881) 17,199, namely, males 9985, and females 7214. Buddhists, 12,316; Hindus, 1775; Muhammadans, 1671; Christians, 1432; and 'others,' 5. In 1883–84, the municipal revenue was £8475. A fairly good road extends northwards towards the frontier, and another southwards to Tan-ta-bin village on the bank of the Sittaung; a third to Thayet-myo is in course of construction.

Távi.—Petty State in the Jhálawár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 12 square miles. Population (1881) 777. Estimated revenue, £271; of which £31 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £2, 10s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Tavli.—Town in Baroda State, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Population (1872) 5952. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Tavoy.—British District in the Tenasserim Division of Lower Burma, lying between 13° 16′ and 15° 10′ N. lat., and between 97° 48′ and 98° 44′ E. long. Area, 7150 square miles. Population (1881) 84,988 souls. Bounded north by Amherst District, east by the Yoma Mountains, south by Mergui District, and west by the Bay of Bengal. The administrative head-quarters are at TAVOY TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of Tavoy District is that of a narrow tract, enclosed by mountains on three sides, and open on the west towards the sea. The main range of the Yomas, with a general north-north-west and south-south-east direction, rises in places to a height of 5000 feet, and, throwing off numerous densely wooded spurs, forms an almost impassable natural barrier between British territory

and Siam. It is crossed by three routes. The northern is by the Tan-daung at the source of the Siamese stream May-nam-naw-ey, in lat. 14° 26′ 53″ N., and long. 98° 32′ E., from Tavoy to Kan-bú-rí *viâ* Met-ta. The southern is by the Amya Pass, 60 miles lower down, which derives its name from a village on the Tenasserim river. Twelve days are occupied in travelling by this route from Tavoy to Bangkok; the first takes 16½ days. Thirty-eight miles south of Amya is another road into Siam through the Mai-bhúra Pass; but this is very difficult, and is only used by Karens. Bounding the Tenasserim valley on the west, and constituting the watershed between the Tavoy and Tenasserim rivers, is another range thrown off by the main chain, in about lat. 14° 42′ N., which extends down through the District into Mergui to the great westerly bend of the Tenasserim river. The highest peak in this range is Nwa-la-bo, the ascent of which has been made several times. The chief rivers of the District are the TAVOY and the TENASSERIM. The latter is formed by the junction of two streams, which unite near Met-ta, flow eastwards, then south into Mergui District.

The District of Tavoy has never been carefully surveyed as regards its geological formation. The mountain ranges appear to be granite; and some of the low hills consist of alluvium, composed chiefly of gravel with small boulders of sandstone, conglomerate, and quartz. The intervening valleys have occasional patches of clay slate, more or less altered by igneous action. The plain country in the lower course of the Tavoy river consists of stiff, and sometimes highly ferruginous, clay. It is certain that Tavoy District formerly yielded tin and lead, and there is reason to believe that the tribute to the Government of Ava was mainly paid in these metals; but since the British occupation, lead has not been worked, and tin is only collected in small quantities. Gold is washed at the head-waters of many streams, and copper is said to exist in two or three localities at the mouth of the Taung-byauk river. There is a small hill of magnetic iron-ore about 3 miles north-west of Tavoy, specimens of which have been analyzed, and reported to contain more than 66 per cent. of pure metal. The mineral springs are of two kinds, viz. sulphurous and saline; the first are situated near the bifurcation of the Tenasserim river, and the others east and south of Tavoy. The thermometer in the hottest sulphurous spring has been found to stand at 119° F., and in the hottest saline one at 144°. The principal saline spring at Pai is in a sandy basin in the midst of granite rocks, on the margin of a cold-water stream, where it bubbles up from three or four vents; in one the thermometer has been found to rise to within 14° of boiling point.

The chief timber trees of Tavoy District are—*thin-gan* (Hopea odorata), which sometimes attains a height of 250 feet, and furnishes a strong wood used extensively in the construction of boats; *pyin-gado*

(Xylia dolabriformis); *anan* (Fagræa fragrans), which hardens by submersion, and is valuable for bridges and piles; *pyin-ma* (Lagerstrœmia Flos-Reginæ); *in-gyin* (Shorea siamensis); and *padouk* (Pterocarpus indicus), the wood of which resembles mahogany, but is heavier; it is much prized, and is largely used for gun-carriages in India. Numerous gums and medicinal plants are also found in Tavoy. The wild animals include the elephant, rhinoceros, tiger, leopard, bear, ant-eater, hog, and orang-outang. Fish abound in great variety.

History.—Tavoy District has at various times formed a portion of the dominions of the kings of Siam, Pegu, and Ava, but its history is involved in great obscurity. The first settlers were probably Siamese; but at a very early date a colony of Arakanese established themselves, who have left their mark on the language. The earliest written accounts of the country state that the Burmese king, Na-ra-pad-dí-tsi-thu, who came hither rather as a preacher of religion than as a conqueror, founded Kyek-lut in Kwe-daung Bay, not far from the mouth of the Tavoy in 1200 A.D. Na-ra-pad-dí-tsi-thu also built the pagoda on Tavoy Point, which is perhaps the first that placed Buddhism on a permanent basis in this region. Anxious to connect their religion with the great Asoka, Buddhist writers assert that that monarch ordered the construction of a pagoda in what is now Tavoy town. Many years afterwards, the country was subject to Siam, and still later to the sovereigns of Pegu, from whom it passed to the kings of Burma; but it continually suffered from Siamese invasions. About 1752, the ruler of Tavoy set up for an independent prince, and made overtures to the East India Company; but the terms proposed were too exorbitant from a pecuniary point of view. Soon afterwards (1757), Tavoy again became a Province of Siam; but in 1759 it surrendered to Alaung-paya or Alompra, the great Burmese conqueror.

From 1760 until the signing of the treaty of Yandabu in February 1826, the country was torn by internal rebellions and attacks from the Siamese. During the first Anglo-Burmese war in 1824, an expedition was despatched against the District, which ended in Tavoy being handed over to the British. In 1829, revolt broke out, headed by Maung Da, the former governor; but this was speedily suppressed, and since then the District of Tavoy has remained in undisturbed possession of the British. For some years, a body of troops was stationed in Tavoy town, but the District is now guarded solely by police.

The most famous pagoda in the District is the Shin Mut-ti, a few miles south of Tavoy town, containing an image, near which are a stone and a banian tree, all three supposed to have been miraculously floated across the sea from India. The temple is 58 feet high, and 300 feet in circumference at the base. On Tavoy Point, on the right bank of

the river, is the Shin-maw, only 9 feet high, founded in 1204 A.D., and said to contain a tooth of Gautama. North of Tavoy is the Shin-da-weh, of very early date, and built on the spot upon which a holy relic of Buddha alighted after flying through the air when released by its possessor. In addition to these, there are 16 pagodas in the town and suburbs of Tavoy, and 19 others in the District, all of more or less sanctity, and some supposed to be of great antiquity.

Population.—Owing to the mountainous and wooded nature of the country, and the incessant warfare to which it has been subjected, Tavoy has always been sparsely inhabited. It is doubtful who were the first settlers; but tradition points to a colony of Arakanese near Tavoy, and is supported by some dialectic peculiarities in the language of the present inhabitants. From the annual official returns, it appears that in 1855–56 the population numbered 52,867 persons, who by 1864–65 had increased to 62,427. In 1872, when the first regular Census was taken in the District, the population was returned at 71,827 persons, and by the last regular Census of 1881, at 84,988, disclosing an increase of 13,161 on the figures of 1872, or 18·3 per cent. The people dwelt in 1 town and 290 villages, containing 15,464 occupied and 733 unoccupied houses; area of the District, 7150 square miles. Towns and villages per square mile, 0·04; houses per square mile, 2·26; persons per square mile, 11·89; persons per town or village, 292; persons per occupied house, 5·5. Classified according to sex, there were—males 41,785, and females 43,203; proportion of males, 49·2 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 17,641, and girls 17,025; total children, 34,666, or 40·8 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 24,144, and females 26,178; total adults, 50,322, or 59·2 per cent. The Census of 1881 returned the boat population of Lower Burma—people who in the dry season travel about the numerous creeks and rivers, live in their boats, and are engaged in trade of various kinds. In Tavoy District, the boat population numbered 490, namely, males 463, and females 27, living in 60 boats. The majority of the inhabitants occupy the valley of the Tavoy river, where most of the cultivable land in the District is found.

Distributed as regards religion, by far the largest portion of the population are Buddhists, 82,187, or 96·7 per cent.; Christians, 1368; Muhammadans, 828; Nat-worshippers, or non-Buddhist indigenous races, whose religion consists in a kind of worship of spirits or 'demons,' supposed to reside in natural objects and to interfere with mankind, 355; and Hindus, 250.

The Muhammadan population, according to sect, was thus returned—Sunnís, 703; Shiás, 84; Wáhábís, 18; and 'others,' 23.

The Christians by sect were—Baptists, 1203; members of the Church of England, 94; Roman Catholics, 68; and unspecified, 3.

According to race — Europeans and Americans, 11; Eurasians, 73; Natives, 1284. Of the native converts, 1199 were Baptists, 77 members of the Church of England, and 8 Roman Catholics.

Taking language as a test of race, Burmese numbered 75,181; Karens, 8553; Chinese, 301; Talaings, 275; Hindustánís, 260; Tamils, 107; Tavoyese, 78; Sháns, 70; Bengálís, 49; Telugus, 47; Malays, 26; English, 19; Taungthus, 10; Arakanese, 4; Karennís, 4; Uriyás, 3; French, 1.

The Census of 1881 distributed the population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions—males 1408, and females 86; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers—males 73, and females 108; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc. — males 1048, and females 607; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners—males 15,466, and females 9431; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans — males 2878, and females 11,625; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising all children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation—males 20,912, and females 21,346.

In 1881, of the 291 towns and villages in Tavoy District, 164 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 87 between two and five hundred; 36 between five hundred and one thousand; 2 between one and two thousand; 1 between two and three thousand; and 1 between ten and fifteen thousand. TAVOY TOWN, the head-quarters of the District, is situated on the left bank of the river of the same name. Its population in 1881 was 13,372.

Agriculture.—The area under cultivation in Tavoy is barely one-sixtieth of its whole extent, and the cultivable but uncultivated area amounts to 3541 square miles. It is to its mineral and forest wealth that Tavoy must trust for its development, for, owing to the absence of roads, and to the existence of better soil in the neighbouring and more accessible District of Amherst, it offers few attractions to immigrants. In the experimental garden near Tavoy, tea, coffee, cocoa, black pepper, nutmeg, cinchona, and potatoes have been tried. All these grow fairly well; in time, perhaps, some of them may become staple products of the District; but as yet none of them have been commercially successful. Agriculture supported (1881) 59,997 persons, or 70·59 per cent. of the population. In 1881, of the total area of the District (7150 square miles), 117 square miles were cultivated; the area cultivable was 3541 square miles, and uncultivable 3492 square miles. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, in the same year, was £11,479; average incidence of assessment, including local rates and cesses, 3s. 1d. per cultivated acre; average area of cultivated land per head of agricultural population, 1·25 acres.

Since Tavoy was ceded to the British in 1824, the area under cultivation has steadily increased. In 1855–56, the cultivated area (exclusive of *taungya* or hill-gardens) was 37,360 acres. In 1868, the area under rice was 42,700 acres, which by 1877 had increased to 48,067 acres; and in 1883–84, to 54,788 acres. In 1883–84, the total area under cultivation was 81,819 acres. Rice occupied 54,788 acres; oil-seeds, 120 acres; sugar-cane, 110 acres; cotton, 15 acres; fibres, 340 acres; tobacco, 12 acres; vegetables, 213 acres; areca-nut, 2078 acres; *dhani*, 4059 acres; plantains, 625 acres; durians, 2647 acres; mixed fruit-trees, 6298 acres; *taungyas* (hill-gardens), 9190 acres; land under miscellaneous cultivation not assessed, 1324 acres. In the same year the average produce per acre was returned at—rice, 1100 lbs.; cotton, 547 lbs.; oil-seeds, 584 lbs.; fibres, 182 lbs.; sugar, 730 lbs.; tobacco, 128 lbs. The agricultural live stock consisted of—cows and bullocks, 9591; buffaloes, 27,684; horses and ponies, 30; sheep and goats, 510; pigs, 1200; and elephants, 109: the dead stock—ploughs, 4280; carts, 693; and boats, 2143.

The river banks within range of tidal overflow are cultivated with the *dhani* palm (Nita fruticans). The leaves of this plant are used for thatching purposes; the extracted juice is drunk or converted into molasses; the flower is made into a preserve, and the fruit eaten. The areca-nut is extensively grown for home consumption. In fruit-trees the District is particularly rich; the mango, tamarind, jack, mangosteen, durian, guava, pine-apple, plantain, orange, shaddock, pomegranate, etc., abound.

The average size of a holding in Tavoy is 5·48 acres, for which a single pair of buffaloes and one plough are sufficient. The average rent of rice land is 8s. per acre. In 1883–84, the price of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. was returned at—rice, 7s. 6d.; cotton, 9s. 6d.; jaggery sugar, 8s. 9d.; salt, 2s. 6d.; cocoa-nut oil, £1, 16s.; gingelly oil, £1, 16s. A plough bullock costs £3, 10s., and a buffalo £3. In the same year, the daily wages of a skilled artisan were returned at 3s.; of an unskilled workman, 1s. As a general rule, the land is worked by the proprietors, and there are but few labourers employed. These are usually paid in grain to the value of about 14s. a month, in addition to receiving board and lodging. Tenancies are, as a rule, created by verbal agreement.

Commerce, etc.—With its only port, Tavoy, difficult of access, and with no means of internal communication, the trade of the District has always been small, and is almost entirely confined to Siam and the Straits. There is no inland trade. The principal imports are raw cotton and piece-goods, raw silk, tea, crockery, wines and spirits, metals, and provisions. Chief exports—rice, timber, crude sugar, and earthenware pots. In 1883–84, the number of vessels that entered Tavoy with cargo was 318, with a tonnage of 37,460; in the same year, 385

vessels, with a tonnage of 32,756, cleared with cargo from the port. The average annual value of the sea-borne trade for the five years ending 1883–84 was—imports, £54,179; and exports, £38,903. In 1883–84, the trade was valued at—imports, £65,548; and exports, £47,989. A small coasting traffic is carried on with Maulmain and Rangoon in *dhani* leaves, jaggery sugar, earthenware vessels, fruits, English silk and cotton goods, grain, and vegetables. The chief manufactures are salt and earthen pots. The salt is made partly by evaporation and partly by boiling, and is consumed entirely in the District. The pots are made in and near Tavoy town of clay brought from the neighbourhood of Myo-haung, which sells on the spot for 1s. 6d., and at Tavoy for 5s., per boat-load of 3650 lbs. This quantity, mixed with about one-third part sand, will suffice for 200 pots, which take about fifteen days to complete, and sell at an average rate of £1, 16s. per 100.

Administration.—The imperial and provincial revenue realized in 1853–54, the first year for which returns are available, was £9917; in 1863–64, it rose to £16,759; in 1873–74, to £21,545; and in 1881–82, to £41,300. In 1881, the local revenue of the District amounted to £2991. In 1883–84, the gross revenue was returned at only £18,650, of which £11,134 was derived from the land. Tavoy District was formerly administered by a Deputy Commissioner and 6 *gaung-gyups*, together with a *sit-ke* or native judge for the town, *thugyis* for the circles, and *gaungs* for hamlets. The 'districts' of the *gaung-gyups* have now been amalgamated into 4 townships, with an extra-Assistant Commissioner in charge of each. Up to 1861–62, the police force consisted of the *thugyi*, *gaung*, *kye-dan-gyi*, and 2 peons which were allowed to each *gaung-gyup*; whilst in Tavoy town there were 5 *gaungs*, 6 *jamadárs*, and 43 peons. The regular police force in 1883 numbered 198 officers and men, costing £4576.

Owing to the labours of the Buddhist monks and of the American Baptist missionaries, a knowledge of reading and writing is fairly diffused throughout the District. By the Census of 1881, it was ascertained that of the total population, 3652 males and 522 females were under instruction, besides 10,925 males and 459 females able to read and write but not under instruction. In 1883–84, there were altogether 127 schools in Tavoy District, attended by 4274 pupils. There is a hospital and dispensary in Tavoy town. The prison was formerly occupied by convicts from India; but on the establishment of a penal settlement in the Andaman Islands, it was converted into a local jail. In 1883, the daily average number of prisoners was 80. Tavoy town is the only municipality, with a revenue in 1881–82 of £1389.

Climate, etc.—The climate of Tavoy District on the whole is pleasant, the intense heat in February and March being moderated by sea-breezes.

The average annual rainfall at Tavoy town for the twenty-four years ending 1881 was 195·57 inches. In 1883, the rainfall was 195·44 inches. In 1883, the temperature in the shade was—in May, maximum 100° F., and minimum 78° F.; July, maximum 96°, minimum 74°; December, maximum 93°, minimum 54°. The vital statistics for 1883 show a total of 1020 recorded deaths, being at the rate of 12 per thousand. The hospital and dispensary relieved 283 in-door and 6467 out-door patients; of these, 849 were fever cases, and 1707 worms. [For further information regarding Tavoy District, see *The British Burma Gazetteer*, compiled by authority (Rangoon Government Press, 1879), vol. ii. pp. 682–703. Also see the *British Burma Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of British Burma from 1880 to 1884.]

Tavoy.—Chief town and head-quarters of Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 14° 5′ N., and long. 98° 13′ E., on the Tavoy river, about 30 miles from its mouth. Population (1881) 13,372, namely, males 6028, and females 7344. Buddhists number 12,549; Muhammadans, 550; Hindus, 159; and Christians, 114.

The town of Tavoy lies low, and its north-western and southern portions are flooded at high tide, and swampy during the rains. It is laid out in straight streets, and the houses are for the most part built of timber or bamboo, and thatched with *dhani* or palm leaves. To the east and west, ranges of hills run nearly due north and south, and the surrounding land is under rice cultivation. Tavoy contains court-houses, a custom-house, and the usual public offices. Its trade is of little importance, and is carried on chiefly with ports in Lower Burma and Siam, and with the Straits Settlements. The average annual value of the sea-borne trade for the five years ending 1883–84 was—imports, £54,179; and exports, £38,903. In 1883–84, the trade was valued at—imports, £65,548; and exports, £47,989. The principal exports are rice, *dhani* leaves, jaggery sugar, earthen pots, wood-oil, timber, and fruits; imports—piece-goods, long cloth, turkey red cloth, silk and cotton velvets, iron, crockery, tobacco, and dried vegetables. The total municipal revenue of Tavoy in 1881–82 was £1389. The town was founded in 1751; and ruins of several earlier cities exist in various parts of the District, notably at Old Tavoy, or Myo-haung, a few miles to the north of the modern town. In 1752, the ruler of the country made ineffectual overtures to the East India Company to establish a factory at his capital. During the first Burmese war, Tavoy was surrendered to the British; and for some years it was garrisoned by a detachment from Maulmain, which has since been withdrawn.

Tavoy.—River in the Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; formed by the union of several torrents, which rise in the Ma-lweh spur and

in the western slopes of the main range in the extreme north of Tavoy District. The united stream takes a southerly course of about 120 miles through a narrow valley nowhere exceeding 12 miles in width, and flowing past the town of Tavoy, falls into the sea at Tavoy Point, about 30 miles lower down. From its source to near Nyaung-dun-leh, the Tavoy is unnavigable; from this village as far south as Yun-leh, about 32 miles above Tavoy town, at which place the rapids cease, and the tide is felt, the river is practicable for boats drawing not more than 3 or 4 feet. Three miles above Tavoy town, the character of the river changes, and below Than-lyin-seip or Goodridge plains it flows through an alluvial tract in a wide channel studded with islands. The mouth of the Tavoy is, properly speaking, an estuary, being about 15 miles wide, and navigable by vessels of any burden. Ships can find safe anchorage at all times within Cap Island, a rock about 20 miles from Goodridge plains. Fresh water can be almost always obtained along the western shore as far as the most northern rocky islet, Kathay-ma-kyun, in which is a fine spring known as 'English Well,' and called by the natives In-ga-ni-dwin.

Tavoy Island.—An island off the coast of Tenasserim, Lower Burma, a little to the south of the mouth of the Tavoy river. It extends from lat. 12° 55′ to 13° 13′ N., and from long. 98° 17′ to 98° 23′ E., and is about 18 miles long by 2 broad. On the east, there is an excellent harbour called Port Owen. The caves in the hills of the island are tenanted by the edible-nest-building swallow, and the right of taking the nests is leased out by Government. These nests are much prized by the Chinese, who boil them down into a nutritious soup; and nearly all that are collected are exported to China and the Straits.

Tawá.—River of the Central Provinces; debouching from the Sátpura Hills, in Hoshangábád District, through a picturesque gorge, 16 miles south-east of Hoshangábád town, and draining a large area in the hills to the south. In the rains, its floods are sudden and violent; at other times, its bed exposes many fine sections, showing the geological structure of the hills. Flowing west across the valley, it expands into a wide sandy channel, and joins the Narbadá (Nerbudda) in lat. 22° 48′ N., and long. 77° 49′ E., 4 miles above Hoshangábád town. The confluence is marked by an old temple, near which a religious fair is held every year in November–December.

Taxila.—Ancient ruins in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab.—*See* DERI SHAHAN.

Teesta.—River of Northern Bengal.—*See* TISTA.

Tegur.—Village in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; situated about 15 miles north-west of Dhárwár town. Population (1881) 1791. Iron-ore is smelted in the village, but the scarcity of fuel

prevents operations being conducted on a large scale. Travellers' bungalow; weekly market.

Tehrí.—State in Bundelkhand, Central India.—*See* ORCHHA.

Tehrí (*Tirí* or *Tíkamgarh*).—Capital of Tehrí or Orchhá State, Bundelkhand, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 44′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 52′ 50″ E., near the south-west corner of the State, 40 miles from Orchhá, the former capital. Population (1881) 18,344, namely, males 9439, and females 8905. Hindus number 13,414; Muhammadans, 3836; and 'others,' 1094. A miserable, ill-built town, with no respectable houses, except the Rájá's palace. A few handsome temples, erected as tombs or cenotaphs. Large fort of Tíkamgarh, within the town.

Tehrí Garhwál.—Native State under the Political Superintendence of the Government of the North-Western Provinces.—*See* GARHWAL.

Tekalkota (*Tekkulcota*).—Village in Bellary *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 31′ N., long. 76° 56′ E. Population (1881) 2257, occupying 472 houses. Hindus number 1959, and Muhammadans 298. Formerly, according to Pharoah, the chief town of a *táluk* given by the Vijayanagar sovereign to the Nair *pálegár* of Bellary, but now included in Bellary *táluk*. It fell into the hands of the Muhammadan conquerors of the Deccan in the 16th century, was taken by Haidar Alí when he overran the Balaghát, and ceded by the Nizám to the British in 1800. Distance north from Bellary city, 28 miles. There is a watch-tower on one of the hills, and the ruins of an old stone fort built by the *pálegár;* also a fort in better condition, constructed by order of Haidar Alí; and an old temple to Iswara or Siva, containing an inscription on stone, in the Hala Kánarese character.

Tekkali.—*Zamíndárí* in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency.—*See* RAGHUNATHAPURAM.

Tekkali.—*Zamíndárí táluk* of Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 238 square miles. Population (1881) 105,296, namely, males 51,532, and females 53,764; occupying 19,692 houses, in 1 town and 338 villages. Hindus number 105,067; Muhammadans, 203; Christians, 23; and 'others,' 3.

Telgáon-Kámthi.—Village in Kátol *tahsíl*, Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2345, namely, Hindus, 2278; Muhammadans, 36; Jains, 18; and non-Hindu aborigines, 13.

Teliágarhí.—Pass in the Santál Parganás, Bengal, lying between the Rájmahál Hills on the south, and the Ganges on the north. Formerly of great strategic importance, as commanding the military approaches to Bengal Proper. The ruins of a large stone fort still exist, through which the East Indian Railway passes. It seems never to have been completed, and was constructed in the last century by the Telí *zamíndár*, who was forcibly converted by the

Muhammadans. Hence the name of the fort and the *parganá* in which it is situated.

Telingá (or *Telingána*). — Ancient name of one of the principal kingdoms of Southern India.—*See* ANDHRA.

Tellicherri (*Tallacheri* or *Talasseri*).—Municipal town and seaport in Kotáyam *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 44′ 53″ N., long. 75° 31′ 38″ E. Population (1881) 26,410, namely, males 12,939, and females 13,471, occupying 3426 houses. Hindus number 15,488; Muhammadans, 9149; Christians, 1765; and 'others,' 8.

Tellicherri is a Sub-divisional station, and contains the North Malabar District court, jail, custom-house, churches, and many Government and mercantile offices. It is a healthy and picturesque town, built upon a group of wooded hills running down to the sea, and protected by a natural breakwater of rock. The town, including the suburbs, occupies about 5 square miles, and was at one time defended by a strong mud wall. The citadel or castle, still in excellent preservation, stands to the north of the town, and is now used as a District jail. It is built of laterite, in the form of a square, with flanking bastions on the south-east and north-west corners. The south-east bastion has also a cavalier above it. On the north is another bastion, situated on a cliff overhanging the sea, and separated from the main work by a space of about 150 yards. The immediate precincts of the citadel were further protected by a strong wall, of which portions still remain, loop-holed for musketry and with flanking towers at intervals. The native town lies to the south; the principal street (*bázár*) runs parallel to the coast, and is a mile in length.

The exports, consisting chiefly of coffee, cardamoms, and sandal-wood, were valued in 1883–84 at £697,738; the imports, at £324,523: total, £1,022,261. The average annual value of the trade for the five years ending 1883–84 was £874,527—exports, £651,305; and imports, £223,222. A white dioptric light marks the harbour. Municipal revenue from taxation in 1883–84, £2021; incidence of taxation, 1s. 6¼d. per head of population (26,410) within municipal limits. The average annual rainfall for the eighteen years ending 1881 was 124·34 inches.

The East India Company established a factory at Tellicherri in 1683, to secure the pepper and cardamom trade; and on several occasions, between 1708 and 1761, the Company obtained from the Kolattiri or Chirakkal Rájá, and other local chiefs, not only grants of land in and near Tellicherri, but some important privileges, such as the right to collect customs, administer justice, etc. within these grants. Haidar's invasion of Malabar narrowed the Company's operations for a time; and in 1766, the factory was reduced to a residency. From 1780 to 1782, the town withstood a siege by Haidar's general Sardár Khán; on

the arrival of relief from Bombay, under Major Abingdon, the enemy were severely handled in a sortie, and the siege was raised. In the subsequent wars with Mysore, Tellicherri was the base of operations for the ascent of the Ghâts from the west coast. After the peace, the town became the seat of the Superintendent of North Malabar, and of the Provincial Court of Circuit.

Tenasserim (*Ta-neng-tha-ri*).—Division of the Province of Lower Burma; comprising the 7 Districts of AMHERST, TAVOY, MERGUI, SHWE-GYIN, TAUNG-NGU, the SALWIN HILL TRACTS, and MAULMEIN TOWN, all of which see separately. These Districts formed the tract south of Pegu conquered from Burma in 1826, and were for many years generally known under their official name of the 'Tenasserim Provinces.'

The Division lies between 9° 58′ and 19° 28′ N. lat., and between 95° 50′ and 98° 35′ E. long. Area, 46,730 square miles. Population (1881) 825,741; occupying 151,409 houses, in 5 towns and 3112 villages. Number of unoccupied houses, 8640; average number of persons per village or town, 265; persons per occupied house, 5·45; persons per square mile, 17·67; villages or towns per square mile, 0·07; occupied houses per square mile, 3·2. Classified according to sex, there were—males 437,900, and females 387,841. According to age, there were returned—under 15 years, boys 178,812, and girls 167,234; total children, 346,046, or 41·9 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 259,088, and females 220,607; total adults, 479,695, or 58·1 per cent. The religious division showed the following results:—Buddhists, 698,304, or 84·5 per cent. of the population; Nát-worshippers, or non-Buddhist indigenous races, whose sole religion consists in a kind of worship of spirits or 'demons,' supposed to reside in natural objects and to interfere with mankind, 51,160, or 6·2 per cent.; Christians, 28,315, or 3·4 per cent.; Muhammadans, 24,786, or 2·9 per cent.; Hindus, 23,145, or 2·8 per cent.; Jews, 24; Jains, 5; and Pársís, 2. The indigenous and Indian races, as derived from the language table, include—Burmese, 372,014; Karens, 218,316; Talaings, 111,178; Shans, 37,041; Taungthus, 34,433; Hindustánís, 15,029; Tamils, 12,404; Telugus, 9421; Chinese, 4361; Bengálís, 2900; Karennís, 2152; Tavoyese, 1261; Uriyás, 202; Yabaings, 109; and 'others,' 212. The Christians according to race were—Europeans and Americans, 1120; Eurasians, 1348; and Natives, 25,847. According to sect, there were—followers of the Church of England, 2515; Roman Catholics, 6791; Baptists, 18,680; and of other sects, 329. Of the native converts, 1173 were of the Church of England, 6015 Roman Catholics, 18,540 Baptists, and 119 'others.' The boat population numbered 9386, living in 2119 boats. As regards occupation, the male population was distributed into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and mem-

bers of the learned professions, 12,182; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 2283; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 18,695; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 155,279; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 32,211; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 217,250.

The population entirely dependent on the soil was 564,448, or 68·36 per cent. of the Divisional population. Total cultivated area, 1033 square miles, or an average of 1·17 acres per head of the agricultural population. The total area of cultivable land is 21,168 square miles. Amount of Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses paid on land, £106,941, or an average of 3s. 4d. per cultivated acre. The chief crops in 1883–84 were — rice, 493,041 acres; oil-seeds, 898 acres; sugar-cane, 4510 acres; cotton, 606 acres; fibres, 340 acres; tobacco, 191 acres; vegetables, 2524 acres; cocoa-nuts, 190 acres; areca-nuts, 9925 acres; *dhaní*, 14,397 acres; plantains, 3904 acres; betel-leaf, 840 acres; mixed fruit-trees, 33,792 acres; melons, 37 acres; chillies, 5 acres. *Taungya* or nomadic tillage occupied 52,861 acres. Land under miscellaneous cultivation, not assessed, 1973 acres.

Total number of civil and revenue courts, 33; criminal courts, 50. Strength of regular police, 2319 men. Total length of navigable rivers, 1818 miles; of made roads, 1006; of the Sittaung Valley State Railway, about 100 miles. Total number of schools under public management, missionary, indigenous, and private (1883–84), 1307; scholars, 34,592. The Census Report of 1881 returned 36,919 boys and 6359 girls as under instruction, besides 114,270 males and 10,725 females able to read and write but not under instruction. The principal towns are—MAULMEIN (53,107), TAUNG-NGU (17,199), TAVOY (13,372), MERGUI (8633), SHWE-GYIN (7519). Gross revenue (1883–84), £175,293.

Tenasserim.—Township in Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. A mountainous and forest-clad tract, with little cultivated land. It comprises 4 revenue circles; head-quarters at TENASSERIM TOWN. Population (1881) 7024; gross revenue, £1382.

Tenasserim.—Town in Mergui District, and head-quarters of Tenasserim township, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 12° 5′ 40″ N., and long. 99° 2′ 55″ E., on a neck of land at the confluence of the Great and Little Tenasserim rivers, 33 miles from the mouth of the Tenasserim, and 40 miles south-east of Mergui town. The town is built on a rock of red sandstone, along the slopes of an irregular hill about 200 feet high, surrounded by mountainous and forest-clad country.

Once a large and important city, Tenasserim has, owing to conquest by the Burmese and repeated attacks by the Siamese, dwindled down into a village of only 577 inhabitants in 1881. It was founded

by the Siamese in 1373 A.D.; and a stone pillar, existing to this day, is traditionally asserted to have been erected as a memorial of the event. The pillar bears no inscription, but a Burmese legend relates that a woman was buried alive under it as an offering to the gods for the future prosperity of the town. Tenasserim was surrounded by a mud wall faced with brick, which enclosed an area of 4 square miles. This defence was pulled down many years ago, and the bricks used in building a jail at Mergui. The accounts given by old travellers of the wealth, population, and trade of Tenasserim seem incredible, as there are no traces of ancient greatness, and a few miles below the town a reef of rocks runs right across the river, over which a moderately sized ship's cutter can hardly pass in April, and at no season a vessel drawing more than 6 feet. It is, however, recorded by General Macleod, a competent authority, that in 1825 the Bombay cruiser *Thetis* sailed up as high as Tenasserim. In 1759, the town was taken by the Burmese conqueror Alaung-paya; and some years later, the inhabitants were put to the sword by the Governor. From that time till the British conquest, Tenasserim has been subject to perpetual inroads of the Siamese, and is now an insignificant hamlet. The temperature is very variable, and these sudden changes render the climate unhealthy.

Tenasserim.—River of Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; formed by the junction of two streams of the same name, known as the 'Great' and 'Little' Tenasserim. The Ban rises in the northern slopes of the hills dividing Mergui from Tavoy, and flows northward for 68 miles; at Met-ta it joins another stream, which has its sources in the extreme north of Tavoy District. The united river, under the name of the Great Tenasserim, proceeds southwards for 230 miles between the Yoma Range and the Myin-mo-lek-kat Mountains. Farther on, it receives the waters of the Little Tenasserim, the two continuing to the sea as the Tenasserim. The Little Tenasserim is formed by the union, about 32 miles above Tenasserim, of the Thein-kwon and Nga-won. The Thein-kwon rises in the main range in about lat. 11° 38′ N., and flows through very mountainous country in a general west-north-west direction, with one large bend to the south-west, for about 50 miles to near Sa-khai village. The Nga-won rises also in the main range in about lat. 11° 14′ N., and runs for 50 miles in a much straighter course than the Thein-kwon, but through very similar country. The combined stream, under the name of the Little Tenasserim, runs north-north-west for about 40 miles to the Great Tenasserim, on reaching which it has attained a breadth of 118 yards. There are several mouths to the Tenasserim, the two principal ones being separated from each other by Mergui Island. Large boats can ascend as high as Tenasserim town. The banks of the river are at places

almost perpendicular; and where its course lies through low lands, its bed is thickly studded with picturesque islands. The channel is in some parts so narrow as to occasion rapids, which can only be passed with difficulty at certain seasons. The tide is felt 10 miles above Tenasserim town.

Tendukhera.—Town and municipality in Gádarwárá *tahsíl*, Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 10′ N., and long. 78° 58′ E., 27 miles north-west of Narsinghpur town, and 22 from the Gádarwárá railway station. Population (1881) 2977, namely, Hindus, 2606; Jains, 128; Muhammadans, 95; Kabírpanthís, 55; and non-Hindu aborigines, 93. Municipal income, £98. The iron-mines, 2 miles south-west of the town, formerly leased by the Nerbudda Coal and Iron Company, yield ore of excellent quality. From the employment of charcoal in smelting, the town is free from smoke, and only the ceaseless clink of hammers distinguishes it from the agricultural villages near.

Tenkarai.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Area, 553 square miles. Population (1881) 283,110, namely, males 135,971, and females 147,139; occupying 63,874 houses, in 8 towns and 139 villages. Hindus number 198,928; Muhammadans, 27,736; Christians, 56,432; and 'others,' 14. Cotton, *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare), gram, rice, chillies, and cocoa-nuts are the chief products. Irrigation is provided by the Maradur and Srivaikuntham anicuts. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 12; regular police, 90 men. Land revenue, £51,216.

Tenkarai.—Head-quarters of Tenkarai *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 35′ N., long. 78° 7′ 30″ E. Situated on the south bank of the Tambraparni river, about 20 miles south-west of Tuticorin, and about the same distance south-east of Tinnevelli town. Population (1881) 5956, occupying 1439 houses. Hindus number 5799; Muhammadans, 16; and Christians, 141.

Tenkarai (or *Periakulam*).—Head-quarters of Periakulam *táluk*, Madura District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PERIAKULAM.

Tenkaraikottai (*Tingrikotta*).—Village in Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 1′ N., long. 78° 28′ E. Population (1881) 284, living in 56 houses. A mud fort, commanding one of the entrances to the Báramahál, gave this village some importance in the Mysore wars. In 1768 it changed hands two or three times.

Tenkási.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Area, 361 square miles. Population (1881) 140,405, namely, males 68,605, and females 71,800; occupying 32,054 houses, in 4 towns and 96 villages. Hindus number 122,726; Muhammadans, 12,633; Christians, 5045; and 'others,' 1. The river Chittar and its affluents are crossed by numerous anicuts feeding irrigation channels

and many tanks. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 52 men. Land revenue, £22,810.

Tenkási. — Head-quarters of Tenkási *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 8° 57′ 20″ N., and long. 77° 21′ 20″ E., 25 miles north-west of Tinnevelli town, on the Tinnevelli-Quilon road. Population (1881) 11,987, namely, males 5735, and females 6252, occupying 2726 houses. Hindus number 8352; Muhammadans, 3602; and Christians, 33. Tenkási was once fortified, but the fortifications were destroyed during the Poligár (Pálegár) war. The place derives its name (the Southern Benares) from its great sanctity. It possesses a fine and much revered temple on the main road to Travancore, and is a busy centre of trade.

Tennali.—Village in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 56′ 15″ N., long. 77° 53′ E.; distributed through 67 hamlets, occupying an area of 34¾ square miles, and divided into 4 sections. Situated on the road from Trichinopoli to Coimbatore, 18 miles west of Karúr. Population (1881) 6658, occupying 1528 houses. Market.

Tennasserim.—Division, township, town, and river in Lower Burma. —*See* TENASSERIM.

Tepágarh. — Hill range in Chándá District, Central Provinces; forming the highest part of a wild mountain region 2000 feet above sea-level, covered with dense forest, and crowned by the old fortress of Tepágarh. Lat. 20° 29′ 20″ N., long. 80° 34′ 20″ E. Its massive ramparts of undressed stone, flanked by bastions, and entered through a winding gateway, have a circuit of over 2 miles. Here is a large tank, with a stone embankment and steps along the water face. This reservoir never fails. It is of fabulous depth, and forms the source of the Tepágarhí, which issues from its western bank, and in the rains becomes a roaring torrent. South of the tank rises an inner fort, with lines like those of the outer work. It contains the ruined palace of the Gond chiefs of Tepágarh. The greatest of the line was a prince named Param Rájá, who held the whole Wairágarh country. Invaded by a large force from Chhatísgarh, he defeated them after a long fight, but in the pursuit he dropped a slipper. A laggard bore it to his Rání; and she, deeming that her husband had fallen, drove her chariot into the tank and so died. When the victorious Rájá heard this, he too drove into the tank; and since then, Tepágarh has been desolate.

Terdál.—Town in Sángli, one of the Southern Maráthá States, Bombay Presidency; situated on the right bank of the Kistna river, in lat. 16° 29′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 5′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 5764, namely, Hindus, 3703; Jains, 1292; and Muhammadans, 769. Formerly Terdál was a walled town, but the battlements are now in ruins. Jain temple built in 1187 A.D. Two schools and a dispensary.

Teri.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Kohát District, Punjab, occupying

the whole southern portion of the District. Area, 1616 square miles, with 83 villages and 242 outlying hamlets. Population (1881) 79,987, namely, males 42,641, and females 37,346. Average density, 50 persons per square mile. Muhammadans number 77,662; Hindus, 2271; Sikhs, 11; and 'others,' 43. Inhabited by the Khatak tribe of Pathans, whose chieftain, Sir Khwája Muhammad Khán, K.C.S.I., Nawáb of Teri, holds the whole Sub-division in *jágír* at a quit-rent of £2000 in perpetuity. Of this sum £200 has been remitted during the life-time of the Nawáb, for services rendered during the late Afghán war. The country, though hilly, is fairly well cultivated. The Khataks are a fine race, who make excellent soldiers; and though naturally wild and impatient of control, they have settled down under British rule into peaceable agriculturists and carriers.

Teri.—Town in Kohát District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the Teri Sub-division; situated in lat. 33° 19′ N., and long. 71° 7′ E., on the left bank of the Teri Toi river, 34 miles from Kohát town. Population (1881) 4071, namely, Muhammadans 3770, and Hindus 301. Residence of the Nawáb of Teri, *jágírdár* of the Sub-division. Crowns a high mound overlooking the river, and contains 1100 houses, 11 mosques, and a few shops, all of which rise in tiers along the sides of the mound. The *bázár* occupies the centre of the town, which also contains numerous guest-houses, a dispensary, police station, and school.

Teri.—Native State in Bundelkhand, Central India.—*See* ORCHHA.

Teri Toi.—River in Kohát District, Punjab; formed by the junction of two streams, which rise on the eastern border of Upper Miranzai, and unite about 10 miles due west of Teri town. Thence the river flows eastward through a very narrow valley, hemmed in by hills which descend to its banks, until it joins the Indus, in lat. 33° 17′ N., long. 71° 44′ E., 12 miles above Mokhad. The surrounding hills belong to the salt-bearing range of Kohát, and contain the mines of MALGIN, JATTA, and NARRI.

Terwára.—Native State in the Superintendency of Pálanpur, Bombay Presidency; bounded on all sides by States under the Pálanpur Superintendency—Diodar on the north, Kánkrej on the east, Rádhanpur on the south, and Bhábhar on the west. Area, 125 square miles. Population (1881) 8846. The country is flat and open, and the soil sandy and occasionally black. Only one harvest is reaped in the year, and that of common grains. Water is found from 30 to 75 feet below the surface; towards the north it is brackish. From April to June the heat is excessive, and fever prevails. This territory formerly belonged to the Nawáb of Rádhanpur, having been wrested from the Wághela Rájputs by Nawáb Kamál-ud-dín Khán, about 1715. The family now in possession of Terwára originally came from Sind. From the first they appear to have attached themselves to the Nawáb

of Rádhanpur, serving as horsemen. The State was confirmed to Balúch Khán, the father of the present chief, in 1822; the Nawáb of Rádhanpur having failed to attend to disprove the claim before the Political Superintendent of Pálanpur. The present (1882–83) chief, Thákur Nathu Khán, a Balúch Muhammadan, is fifty-three years of age. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £1200. School with 14 pupils.

Terwára.—Principal town of Terwára State, in Pálanpur Superintendency, Bombay Presidency; and the residence of the chief. Lat. 24° 3′ 30″ N., long. 71° 43′ 30″ E.

Teveram.—Town in Periakulam *táluk*, Madura District, Madras Presidency; situated about 25 miles south-west of Periakulam. Lat. 9° 54′ N., and long. 77° 20′ E. Population (1881) 9807, occupying 1472 houses. Hindus number 9482; Christians, 251; and Muhammadans, 74.

Tezpur.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Darrang District, Assam; situated in lat. 26° 37′ 15″ N., and long. 92° 53′ 5″ E., on the north or right bank of the Brahmaputra, near the confluence of the Bhoroli. Population (1881) 2910. The town is built on a plain, between two low ranges of hills, 278 feet above sea-level. Of recent years, the character of the houses and the sanitary condition of the town have been greatly improved. The houses of the European residents are built upon the hills. In the native quarter, many masonry buildings have recently been erected with roofs of tile or corrugated iron, superseding the old thatched wooden huts. There are the usual civil offices, including a jail, an English school, and a charitable dispensary. Around the court-house are now lying many carved stones and pillars, which show that Tezpur was in former times the site of an important city. According to local tradition, it was the scene of the mythical battle between Bán Rájá and the god Krishna, described in the *Prem Ságar*. In the neighbourhood are many ruins of Hindu temples—massive granite stones and fine sculptures—now buried in dense jungle and forgotten by the present inhabitants. All these temples appear to have been dedicated to Siva, and to have been overthrown by the iconoclastic hand of Muhammadan invaders; or by earthquakes, to which the locality is liable. Tezpur is an important seat of trade, where the river steamers touch to take on board tea, and to leave stores of various kinds to be distributed among the neighbouring tea-gardens.

Tha-baung.—Township in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma; extending across the Arakan mountains to the sea-coast on the west. The whole of the central, and the greater part of the western, portion is mountainous and forest-clad. Chief streams—the Nga-wun and Bo-daw. The township comprises 14 revenue circles, of

which Kwin-hla and Kin-lat are the most fertile. Population (1881) 33,853; gross revenue, £9798. Head-quarters at Tha-baung village; population (1881) 506.

Tha-bye-hla.—Village in the Kyun-pyaw township of Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma; situated on the western bank of the river Da-ga. Population (1877) 2304. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Tha-ga-ra.—Township of Taung-ngu District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. In the west, the country is crossed by numerous mountain spurs, and clothed with dense forests of teak, *pyin-ma* (Lagerstrœmia Flos-Reginæ), *sha* (Acacia Catechu), *in* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus), etc. On the east, a narrow strip of level plain, partly cultivated with rice, is intersected by numerous fair-weather cart-tracks. This township comprises 7 revenue circles. Head-quarters at Pie-tu. Population (1881) 18,939; gross revenue, £1830.

Tha-htun.—Township and town in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma.—*See* THA-TUN.

Thákeswárí.—Temple upon an isolated hill in Goálpárá District, Assam.—*See* TUKRESWARI.

Tha-khwot-peng (*Tha-kut-pin* or *Bassein*).—Tidal creek in Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* THA-KUT-PIN.

Thákuráni.—One of the principal mountain peaks in Orissa; situated in the State of Keunjhar, in lat. 22° 6′ 5″ N., and long. 85° 28′ 30″ E. Height, 3003 feet above sea-level.

Thákurdwárá.—Northern *tahsíl* of Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a submontane tract, lying just below the forest-covered *tarái*, and conterminous with Thákurdwárá *parganá*. It is cut up by numerous small streams, which come down from the northern hills to feed the Rámgangá. Of these, the Lapkana, Kurka (into which the Lapkana falls), and the Dhela are the most important. The Kurka joins the Rámgangá west of Dilárí, and the Dhela about 2 miles north of Moradábád city. The country between the rivers is well cultivated, and shows little waste land. In the south and west of the *tahsíl* are rich villages, chiefly round Dilárí as a centre, where the soil is exceedingly fertile, and the rents proportionately high. The eastern tracts between the Dhela and the Kurka contain many good villages. But in the north the land is generally inferior; and the tract between the Kurka and Lapkana, known as Bajar *patti*, is the worst, having an inferior soil, in which wells will not stand. Much of this is waste and covered with scrubby thorn jungle. The staple crop is rice, and sugar of superior quality is produced in the more favoured villages.

The population of Thákurdwárá *tahsíl* in 1881 was returned at 109,596, namely, males 58,559, and females 51,037; average density, 461.

persons per square mile. Hindus numbered 71,288, and Muhammadans 38,308. Of 262 villages, 199 contained less than five hundred inhabitants; 48 between five hundred and a thousand; 14 between one thousand and five thousand; and 1 between five thousand and ten thousand. Total area (1881–82), 238 square miles, of which 219 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of the assessed area, 148 square miles were returned as under cultivation, 47 square miles as cultivable, and 24 square miles as barren. Government land revenue, £18,459, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £20,828. Rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £33,172. The principal landholders are Chauhán Rájputs, and the prevailing tenure is *zamíndárí*. In 1881 the *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal court, the civil jurisdiction being comprehended under that of Moradábád *tahsíl*. Two police circles (*thánás*); regular police, 27 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 254.

Thákurdwárá.—Town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Thákurdwárá *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 20° 11′ 40″ N., long. 78° 54′ E., 27 miles north of Moradábád town. Population (1881) 6511, namely, Muhammadans 3856, and Hindus 2655. Number of houses, 699. Founded by Mahendra Singh, in the reign of Muhammad Sháh (1719–48), and plundered by the Pindárí freebooter Amír Khán in 1805. Besides the Sub-divisional buildings, the town contains a police station, Anglo-vernacular school, distillery, *sarái* or native inn, 7 mosques, and 4 temples. Manufacture of cotton cloth. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Thákurpukur.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, south of Barsiá. Chapel and school belonging to the Church Missionary Society. The Diamond Harbour Canal extends from Thákurpukur to Kholákháli, a distance of 23 miles.

Thákurtolá.—*Zamíndárí* estate on the north-west border of Ráipur District, Central Provinces; comprising formerly 24, but now (1881) 58 villages, some villages above the *ghát*s having been transferred from Sáletekri, when the entire charge of the *ghát*s was made over to Thákurtolá. The chiefship now extends to the Banjar river. Below the *ghát*s, the country is hilly; above them, flat and well watered. It has fine forests of *bíje-sál*, *hardú*, *dín*, and *dhaura*; and the cultivated area produces cotton, *kodo*, and rice. Area, 376 square miles. Population (1881) 6569, living in 2328 houses. The *zamíndár* is a Gond. Thákurtolá village is situated in lat. 21° 39′ N., and long. 81° E.

Tha-kut-pin (or *Bassein*).—Tidal creek in Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. It forms a channel between the Rangoon and the China Bakir or To rivers, the entrance on the side of the former being about 10 miles from its mouth. Thence the Tha-kut-pin

follows a south-south-west course, and enters the To about 2½ miles from the sea. The direct distance from its mouth is 19 miles; the actual length, 25 miles. During the rainy season the creek has a steady current downwards, but for the rest of the year it is affected by the tide. Its depth is about two fathoms at low water; but the entrance from the Rangoon river is so obstructed by shoals that steamers have to wait for about half-flood before they can pass up. In the dry season, the Tha-kut-pin is the only practicable creek between Rangoon and the Irawadi for steamers and large boats. The banks are steep, muddy, and covered with low forest.

Thal.—Port in Alíbágh Sub-division, Kolába District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 18° 40′ 20″ N., and long. 72° 55′ 55″ E., on the coast, 3 miles north of Alíbágh. Population (1881) 3575; number of houses, 653. Thal is a great fishing station. During the fair weather a passage boat plies irregularly between Bombay and Thal. About 2¼ miles west is situated the wooded island of Khánderi (Kenery), with its southern point crowned by a lighthouse, showing a fixed white dioptric light, visible for 20 miles. Height of centre of lantern above high water, 161 feet. Average annual value of the trade during the five years ending 1881–82—imports, £5030; and exports, £6597.

Tha-le-dan.—River in the Pa-daung township of Prome District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. It falls into the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) at the village of Tha-le-dan, from which it takes its name, and is formed by the junction of two streams—the North and the South Tha-le-dan. The first of these rises in the Arakan range, and flows with a winding course through the hills, receiving the waters of several mountain torrents; and about 4 or 5 miles from the Irawadi, it enters a comparatively level and cultivated tract. It is navigable during the rains for a short distance, and traverses a country rich in teak and other forest timber; its drainage basin is about 210 square miles. The South Tha-le-dan, which is impracticable for boats, also rises in the Arakan mountains, considerably to the south of the source of the North Tha-le-dan, and flows in a north-easterly direction to join that river. Timber is floated down it to Ma-taung village, and thence by the joint stream to the Irawadi.

Thalghát (*Kásáraghát*).—Pass in the Sahyádri Hills, on the boundary of Thána (Tanna) and Násik Districts, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 19° 43′ N., and long. 73° 30′ E., 65 miles north-east by north of Bombay city. The Thalghát Pass is, for purposes of trade, one of the most important in the range of the Sahyádri Hills. It is traversed by two lines of communication, road and rail. The road is the main line between Bombay and Agra. It still conveys a large traffic coastwards in grain, and Deccanwards in salt and sundries. The railway is

the north-eastern branch of the Great Indian Peninsula line. The summit of the railway incline is 1912 feet above the level of the sea; the maximum gradient is 1 in 37; and the extreme curvature, 17 chains radius.

Thammapatti (*Thummapatty*).—Town in Atúr *táluk*, Salem District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 11° 34′ 40″ N., and long. 78° 19′ 45″ E., at the foot of the Kollamalai Hills, on the river Swathanati. Population (1881) 3431, namely, Hindus, 3115; Muhammadans, 236; and Christians, 80; occupying 702 houses. Iron-smelting industry.

Thán.—Village in Lakhtar State, in the Jháláwár Sub-division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated to the north of the main road from Wadhwán to Rájkot, 22 miles west-south-west of Muli. Population (1881) 1641. The village is surrounded by a fort. Post-office. Thán is interesting for its traditions rather than for the few antiquarian remains now existing. The following description of the place is condensed from an account supplied to Mr. Burgess by Major J. W. Watson for the *Archæological Survey of Western India*:—

Thán is one of the most ancient places in India, and the whole of the neighbourhood is holy ground. Thán itself derives its name from the Sanskrit *sthán*, 'a place,' as though it were *the* place, hallowed above all others by the residence of devout sages, by the magnificence of its city, and by its propinquity to famous shrines, such as that of Trineteswara, now called Tarnetar, the famous temple of the Sun at Kandola, and those of the Snake-brethren Vásukí and Banduk, now known as Wásangí and Bándiá Beli respectively.

Thán is situated in the part of Suráshtra [Káthiáwár] known as the Deva Panchál—so called, it is said, from having been the native country of Draupadí, the wife of the five Pándava brethren, from which circumstance she was called Panchálí; and because it is peculiarly sacred, it is called the Deva Panchál. Nor is Thán famous in local tradition only. One of the chapters of the *Skanda Purána* is devoted to Trineteswara and the neighbourhood, and this chapter is vulgarly called the *Thán Purána* or *Tarnetar Máhátmya*. Here we learn that the first temple to the Sun was built by Rájá Mándhátá in the Satya Yug. The city is said then to have covered many square miles, and to have contained a population of 36,000 Bráhmans, 52,000 Vaisyas, 72,000 Kshattriyas, and 90,000 Súdras—in all, 250,000 souls.

In 1690 A.D., Kártalab Khán, viceroy of Gujarát, stormed the town, and levelled the old temple. The present temple is built on the former site. Thán was visited also by Krishna and his consort Lakshmí, who bathed in the two tanks near the town, whence one has been called Pritam, a contraction from *Priyatam*, 'the beloved,' after Krishna—so named as being the beloved of the Gopís; and the other Kamala,

after Lakshmí, who from her beauty was supposed to resemble the *kamala* or lotus-blossom. The central fortress was called Kandola, and here was the celebrated temple of the Sun. Immediately opposite to Kandola is another hill, with a fort called in more recent times Songarh; and another large suburb was named Mándvá. Within a few miles was the shrine of the three-eyed god Trineteswara, one of the appellations of Siva; and close to this, the celebrated *kund*, by bathing in which pool all sins were washed away. This *kund* was called, therefore, the Pápnásham or 'sin-expelling,' as the forest in which it was situated was called the Pápapnod-nuvana or the Forest of the Sin-destroyer. Close to Thán are the Mándhav Hills, distinguished by this name from the rest of the Tángá range, of which they form a part; and the remains of Mándhavgarh, such as they are, may be seen close to the shrine of Bándiá Beli, the modern name of Banduk, one of the famed Snake-brethren. An account of the remains at present existing, and of the legendary history of the snake-shrines, will be found in Mr. Burgess' *Archæological Survey of Western India.*

Thána (*Tanna*).—British District in the Bombay Presidency, lying between 18° 47′ and 20° 23′ N. lat., and between 72° 39′ and 73° 52′ E. long. Area, 4243 square miles. Population (1881) 908,548 souls. Thána District is bounded on the north by the Portuguese territory of Damán and by Surat District; on the east by the Districts of Násik, Ahmadnagar, and Poona; on the south by Kolába District; and on the west by the Arabian Sea.

Physical Aspects.—Thána consists of a distinct strip of low land intersected by hilly tracts, rising to elevations varying from 100 to 2500 feet. Towards the east and north-east, the country is elevated, covered with trees, and but scantily cultivated. Near the coast, the land is low, and where free from inundation, fertile. North of the Vaitaraní river, whose broad waters open a scene of exquisite loveliness, the shores are flat, with long sandy spits running into muddy shallows, while the hills also recede; so that, a little north of the great marsh of Dáhánu, the general aspect resembles Gujarát rather than the Konkan, while the language also begins to change from Maráthí to Gujarátí. Along the whole line of coast the soil is fertile, and the villages are exceedingly populous. In the north-east, the hills are covered with wood, and the valleys but partially cultivated. The villages are seldom more than scattered hamlets of huts; and the population consists mainly of uncivilised aboriginal tribes, many of whom still wander from place to place as they find land or water to suit their fancy.

Inland, the District is well watered and well wooded. Except in the north-east, where much of it rises in large plateaux, the country is a series of flat low-lying rice tracts broken by well-marked ranges of

hills. Salt marshes are an important feature of this part of the District; and in them the reclamation of land for cultivation is going on steadily, though slowly. The Vaitaraní, rising in the Trimbak hills in Násik District opposite the source of the Godávari, navigable to a distance of about 20 miles from its mouth, is the only considerable river. The sacredness of its source, so near the spring of the Godávari, the importance of its valley, one of the earliest trade routes between the sea and the North Deccan, and the beauty of the lower reaches of the river, brought to the banks of the Vaitaraní some of the first of the Aryan settlers. It is mentioned in the *Mahábhárata* as one of the four holy streams. Though deep and rapid in the rains, the other rivers are of little consequence; shallow in the cold weather, and in the hot season almost dry. Except the Bassein creek, which separates the island of Salsette from the mainland, and is navigable throughout its whole length, most of the inlets of the sea, though at their mouths broad and deep, become within 10 miles of the coast shallow watercourses.

There are no natural lakes; but the Vehar reservoir, about 15 miles from Bombay, between Kurla and Thána, constructed as a storage lake for the supply of water to Bombay city, covers an area of about 1400 acres. It is formed by three dams, two of which had to be built to keep the water from flowing over ridges on the margin of the basin which were lower than the top of the main dam. The quantity of the water supplied by the reservoir is about 8,000,000 gallons a day, or a little more than ten gallons per head for the population of Bombay. Within the watershed of the lake, tillage or the practice of any craft is forbidden, and the wildness of the surrounding country keeps the water free from the risk of contamination. For many years the water was excellent, but of late the growth of weeds has somewhat injured its quality. There are at present no means of emptying the lake, clearing it out, or filtering it, but the Bombay municipality has under consideration various schemes for improving the water. The cost of the Vehar reservoir, and of laying the pipes into Bombay, was £373,650. As apprehension was felt that the quantity of water drawn from the gathering ground of Vehar (2550 acres) might prove too small for the wants of Bombay, the neighbouring Túlsí lake was excavated at a cost of £45,000, and its water kept ready to be drained into Vehar. In 1877 a new scheme was undertaken for bringing an independent main from Túlsí to the top of Malabar hill in Bombay, which was carried out at a cost of £330,000. This source of supply gives an additional daily allowance of six gallons per head for the whole population of the city, and provides for the higher parts of Bombay which are not reached by the Vehar main. Along the coast, the water-supply is abundant; and, though brackish, the water is not unwholesome. In the inland

parts, water can be had for the digging; but the people are so poor that wells are few, and the supply of water scanty.

Ranges of hills are found all over the District. Among the most considerable are those running through Salsette from north to south, the Matherán range, the Damán range, in which is Tungár, and the range running from north to south between the Vaitaraní and the Bassein creek. Besides, there are several more or less isolated hills, many of them in former times forts of strength and celebrity. The two most striking in appearance are Máhulí and Malangarh.

Except in alluvial valleys, the geological formation consists almost entirely of the Deccan trap and its associate rocks. Limestone and various stones for building purposes are also found. Palm-trees grow in abundance near the coast, and stunted date-trees are seen everywhere.

The forests of Thána, which supply Bombay with a large quantity of firewood, yielded a revenue of £6465 in 1870–71, and £16,072 in 1879–80. Next to those of Kánara and Khándesh, they are the largest and most valuable in the Bombay Presidency. The Government reserves stretch over 1664 square miles, or about 40 per cent. of the total area of the District. Of the whole forest area, 625 square miles have been provisionally gazetted as reserved, and 1039 square miles as protected forest. The timber trade is chiefly in the hands of Christians of Bassein, Musalmáns, and Párs'is.

Sea-fishery is very productive, so that the fishing castes are able to cure and export to a large extent. The chief traders make a profit of about 6¼ per cent., and the retail dealers about twice as much. Large transactions take place between the fishing and agricultural classes, the former taking salted and dried fish inland and exchanging them for grain.

History.—The territory comprised in the District of Thána formed part of the dominions of the Peshwá, annexed by the Bombay Government in 1818, on the overthrow of Bájí Ráo. (For further information on the history of the District, see BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.)

Population.—Since the beginning of British rule the people have been four times numbered, in 1846, 1851, 1872, and 1881. In 1846, the population amounted to 554,937. The 1851 Census showed an increase in population of 6·89 per cent.; that is, a total of 593,192. The 1872 Census disclosed a population of 847,424, or an increase of 42·85 per cent. That of 1881 returned a total of 908,548, or a further increase of 61,124, or 7·21 per cent.; occupying 154,403 houses in 10 towns and 2091 villages. Number of unoccupied houses, 20,025. Average number of persons per village or town, 433; persons per occupied house, 5·88; persons per square mile, 214·12; villages or towns per square mile, 0·49; occupied houses per square mile, 36·4. Classified according to sex, there were—males 468,236, and females 440,312; proportion of males, 51·5 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under

15 years, boys 193,344, and girls 180,269; total children, 373,613, or 41·1 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upward, males 274,892, and females 260,043; total adults, 534,935, or 58·9 per cent.

The religious division showed the following results: — Hindus, 806,805, or 88·8 per cent.; Muhammadans, 42,391, or 4·6 per cent.; Christians, 39,545, or 4·4 per cent.; non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 13,078, or 1·4 per cent.; Pársis, 3315; Jains, 2517; Jews, 892; and 'others,' 5.

The Hindus were divided into the following main castes:—Kunbís (cultivators), 221,335; Agárias (husbandmen), 117,732; Kolís (cultivators), 89,467; Mhárs (inferior caste), 52,745; Bráhmans (priestly caste), 24,295; Bhandáris (palm-juice drawers), 13,224; Dublás (field labourers), 10,882; Málís (gardeners), 7700; Chamárs (workers in leather), 7429; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 6775; Sutárs (carpenters), 6744; Kumbhárs (potters), 5126; Nápits (barbers), 3877; Banjárás (carriers), 3861; Lohárs (blacksmiths), 3122; Rájputs (warrior caste), 2772; Dhángars (shepherds), 2503; Darjís (tailors), 2376; Telís (oilmen), 1928; Dhobís (washermen), 1222; and 'others,' 221,690.

The Muhammadan population consists of — Shaikhs, 38,211; Patháns, 1389; Sayyids, 968; and 'others,' 1823. According to sect, the Muhammadans included Sunnís 41,772, and Shiás 619.

Christians sub-divided into sect—Roman Catholics, 39,291; Episcopalians, 153; Baptists, 62; Presbyterians, 23; Protestants (undistinguished by sect), 8; Wesleyans, 7; and Methodist, 1. According to race—Europeans, 182; Eurasians, 28; and Natives, 39,335 (including 39,191 Roman Catholics).

The Christians of Salsette and Bassein, numbering about 37,000, deserve special notice. They are the descendants of the converts of St. Francis Xavier and his successors in the 16th century. As the original converts were not obliged to give up caste distinctions, their descendants have retained many of them, and a Thána Christian can still tell to what caste his family belonged before conversion. Indeed, Christians of the Bhandári, Kunbí, and Kolí castes commonly call themselves Christian Bhandáris, Kunbís, or Kolís, as the case may be; and Christians belonging to different castes do not, as a rule, intermarry, though the restriction in this respect is not so rigid as among Hindus. All of them have Portuguese names; and they show their attachment to their faith by contributing very largely to their churches, and to the support of their priests. All Christian villages on the coast, and a good number inland, have their churches; and where a congregation is not large enough to keep a resident priest, one priest serves two or three churches. At many of the Salsette churches annual fairs or festivals are held, to which the Christians flock in great numbers. Numerous Hindus and Pársís also attend, as some of the shrines have a reputation

for working cures, which is not confined to Christians, and which obtains for them many heathen offerings. The upper classes dress as Europeans, the lower generally with jacket and short drawers of coloured cotton, and a red cloth cap; the women of the lower classes, when they appear at church, wear a voluminous white shawl or mantle. Their houses are generally tiled, and often two-storied, and frequently washed in colours outside. Many of these Christians are employed as clerks and shopmen in Bombay; but they pride themselves on differing from their brethren of Goa in refusing to enter household service. They live by cultivation, fishing, toddy-drawing, and every other employment open to similar classes of Hindus. A few members of the best families enter the priesthood. In Salsette very many, and in Bassein a few, of the State grants to village head-men are held by Christians.

A remarkable trait in the character of the Thána people is the very deep and almost universal reverence which they pay to semi-aboriginal or non-Bráhmanical spirits or deities. Almost all classes, Pársís, Jews, Muhammadans, and Christians, in spite of the displeasure of their priests, persist in fearing and making offerings to these local *deos.*

Except a few who proceed to Bombay during the dry season chiefly as labourers and cartmen, the people seldom leave their homes in search of work. Their labour seems not to be in much demand outside the District, probably because their fever-stricken constitutions prevent them competing with the able-bodied labouring classes of Poona, Sátára, and Ratnágiri. Much of this want of strength is due to the weakening climate, malarious forests, the strain and exposure in planting rice, and the immoderate use of spirituous drinks. Of outside labourers who come to Thána for work, the most important class are Deccan Kunbís and Mhárs, who are known in the District as Ghátís or highlanders. They generally arrive in the beginning of the fair season, trooping in hundreds down the Bhor and other passes. Upwards of a thousand find employment as grass-cutters in Salsette, Kalyán, and Máhim.

In 1881, there were in Thána District the following ten towns with a population exceeding 5000:—BANDRA, population 14,987; THANA, the District capital, 14,456; BHIWANDI, 13,837; KALYAN, 12,910; BASSEIN, 10,357; PANWEL, 10,351; URAN, 10,149; KURLA, 9715; MAHIM, 7122; AGASHI, 6823. These figures disclose a total urban population of 110,707, or 12·2 per cent. of the District population. Excepting Panwel, Uran, and Agáshi, the remaining seven above-mentioned towns were in 1883–84 municipalities; their municipal income aggregated £7893; the incidence of taxation varied from 7½d. to 2s. 3½d.

Of the 2101 towns and villages in 1881, 745 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 889 between two and five hundred; 332 between five hundred and one thousand; 98 between one and two thousand; 18

between two and three thousand; 9 between three and five thousand; 4 between five and ten thousand; and 6 between ten and fifteen thousand.

As regards occupation, the male population was distributed by the Census into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 8310; (2) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 9757; (3) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 9912; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 204,839; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 35,114; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 200,304.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supported (1881) 610,705 persons, or 67·22 per cent. of the population; only 369,438 were agricultural workers. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £77,909, or an average of 3s. 1d. per cultivated acre. Average area of cultivable and cultivated land per agricultural worker, 3·4 acres. The survey returns give Thána, excluding Jawhár, an area of 2,722,088 acres. Of these, 189,682 acres, or 6·96 per cent., are alienated, paying to Government only a quit-rent; 1,034,137 acres, or 37·99 per cent., are cultivated or cultivable; 1,030,168 acres, or 37·84 per cent., forest; 73,801 acres, or 2·71 per cent., salt-pans and salt marshes; 94,412 acres, or 3·46 per cent., hills and uplands; and 299,888 acres, or 11·01 per cent., village sites and roads.

The chief irrigation is flooding of the rice lands, during the rains, by the small streams that drain the neighbouring uplands. Some dry weather irrigation is carried on from rivers and unbuilt wells. Two influences, sea encroachment and land reclamations, have for centuries been changing the lands along the coast. Of the encroachments, the most remarkable are at Dáhánu, where the sea has advanced about 1500 feet; and at the mouth of the Vaitaraní, where, since 1724, four villages have been submerged. Of the land reclamations, most have been made in small plots, which, after yielding crops of salt rice for some years, gradually become freed from their saltness, and merge into the area of sweet rice land. Most of the embankments built to keep back the sea are believed to be the work of the Portuguese, having been constructed partly by the Government, and partly by the European settlers to whom the Government granted large estates. In this, as in other respects, the Portuguese did much to improve the coast districts. From the beginning of British rule, salt wastes have been granted for reclamation on specially favourable terms. Of a total estimated area of about 93,000 acres of salt waste and salt marsh, about 16,500 acres have been reclaimed, and about 76,000 acres remain available for reclamation.

In 1883–84, the area under actual cultivation was 509,792 acres, of which 7172 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 438,998 acres; pulses, 45,964 acres; garden produce, 3227 acres; condiments and spices, 1190 acres; sugar, 1695 acres, all under sugar-cane; oil-seeds, 21,578 acres, of which 14,373 were under *til* (Sesamum indicum); and fibres, 4312 acres. Rice, by far the most important grain crop, occupied 325,724 acres, or 63·9 per cent. of the total area under cultivation; it is the chief article of export. Sugar-cane is cultivated in some places. Salt-pans occupied 4772 acres. In 1878–79, the total number of holdings in Government villages, including alienated lands, was 90,709, with an average area of 11½ acres. In 1883–84, the agricultural live stock consisted of—bullocks, 131,565; cows, 114,097; buffaloes, 68,293; horses and ponies, 1172; sheep and goats, 32,383: dead stock—ploughs, 77,355; and carts, 25,816. In the same year, the price of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. was—wheat, 7s. 8¾d.; rice (best), 9s. 9⅜d.; rice (common), 8s. 3⅛d.; *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), 5s. 4¼d.; *jodr* (Sorghum vulgare), 4s. 2½d.; gram, 6s. 1d.; salt, 5s. 7¾d.; *dál* (split-peas), 7s. 10½d.; *ghí*, £3, 12s. 3½d. The daily wages of skilled artisans varied from 9d. to 2s.; of unskilled workmen, from 3d. to 7½d. The hire of carts ranges from 1s. 6d. to 3s. per day; pack-bullocks, from 6d. to 1s. 3d.; asses, 6d.; horses and ponies, from 1s. to 2s.

Beside the regular survey tenure, common to the Bombay Presidency, several peculiar tenures of land exist in Thána. A considerable number of villages, chiefly in the Salsette Sub-division, are held on the *khoti* tenure. The *khots*, who are leaseholders of a certain number of villages, obtained their land from the British Government at an early period of its rule. Another kind of leasehold tenure, known as *isáfat*, is found in most parts of the District. An *isáfat* village is a farm or lease formerly resumable at pleasure, though not, of course, so under the British Government, and held always on the condition of paying the full assessment, according to the rates of the District. Other lands, lying either on the coast or along the larger creeks, are held on the *shilotri* tenure. *Shilotri* lands are those which have been reclaimed from the sea and embanked, and of which the permanence is dependent on the embankments being kept up. These reclamations are known as *khárs*. The tenure is of two sorts. First, *shilotri* proper, under which the *khár* belongs to the person by whom it was reclaimed. The *shilotidárs* are considered to have a proprietary right; they let out these lands at will, and according to old custom, levy a *maund* of rice per *bighá*, in addition to the assessment for the repair of the outer embankments. The second class of *shilotri* lands are those in which Government either reclaimed the *khárs* in the first instance, or subsequently became possessed of them by lapse. Except that they pay an extra rate, which is spent in repairing the embankments, the cultivators of

these *khárs* hold their land on the same conditions as the regular survey tenants.

Communications.—Along the sea-coast, and up the creeks, sailing vessels and canoes form a ready means of communication. In three directions the District is crossed by railways. To the north, the line of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway skirts the coast for a total distance of 95 miles. East and west, the Great Indian Peninsula Railway runs for 24 miles, and then dividing, runs north-east 44 miles and south-east 49 miles. In the north and east of the District there are no made roads. But Salsette is well supplied with roads; and two main lines run eastward, the Agra road across the Thal Pass to Násik, and the Poona road by way of the Bhor Pass. Since the establishment of local funds, many new lines of roads have been made; and in 1882–83 there were 228 miles of good made roads in the District.

During the present century three causeways have been made between the islands in the neighbourhood of the city of Bombay. The first joined Sion in Bombay with Kurla in Salsette, the second joined Máhim in Bombay with Bándra in Salsette, and the third joined Kurla in Salsette with Chembur in Trombay. The Sion causeway was begun in 1798 and finished in 1805, at a cost of £5037. In 1826 its breadth was doubled, and it was otherwise improved at a further outlay of £4000. The Sion causeway is 935 yards long and 24 feet wide. In 1841, Lady Jamsetji Jijibhai offered £4500 towards making a causeway between Máhim and Bándra. The work was begun in 1843, and before it was finished Lady Jamsetji increased her first gift to £15,580. The causeway was completed at a total cost of £20,384, and was opened in 1845. It is 3600 feet long and 30 feet wide, and in the centre has a bridge of 4 arches, each 29 feet wide. The Chembur causeway was built about 1846. It is 3105 feet long, and from 22 to 24 feet wide.

Commerce and Trade.—The chief articles of export are rice, salt, wood, lime, and dried fish. Cloth, grain, tobacco, cocoa-nuts, sugar, and molasses form the chief articles of import. The average annual value of the sea-borne trade at the thirty-three ports of the District for the five years ending 1883–84 was — imports, £476,972; and exports, £1,408,763. In 1883–84, the value of the trade was — imports, £496,769; and exports, £1,566,386. A comparison of the local railway traffic returns, during the eight years ending 1880, shows a rise in the number of passengers from 1,960,727 in 1873 to 3,105,165 in 1880; and in goods from 77,405 tons in 1873 to 140,946 tons in 1880. In 1880, 1,619,774 passengers and 95,513 tons of goods were carried along the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; and 1,485,391 passengers and 45,433 tons of goods along the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India line. On the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, between 1873 and 1880, the figures show an increase in passengers from 1,094,737 to 1,619,774;

and in goods from 57,330 to 95,513 tons. For the road traffic, no details are available. In spite of railway competition, it is said that a considerable through traffic is still kept up along the Agra and Poona roads.

Next to agriculture, the making of salt is the most important industry of the District. There are 200 salt-works, with an estimated area of 8100 acres, and an out-turn in 1880–81 of 171,000 tons of salt, worth about £33,000, or, including duty, about £956,000, and yielding a revenue of £780,000. The number of people employed in making and trading in salt is estimated at about 20,000. Thána salt is made by the solar evaporation of sea-water. Besides the ordinary brass work and pottery, the chief industries of the District are handloom-weaving by Portuguese or native Christians, and of silk and cotton by Musalmáns in Thána and Bhiwandi, and spinning and weaving of cotton in the steam factories at Kurla (Coorla), 8 miles east of Bombay city. Of other industries, there are a dyeing factory at Wásind, distilleries and chemical factories at Chembur and Uran, and a toddy factory at Dhárávi. The money-lenders are chiefly Baniyás of the class known as Márwáris, Bráhmans, and village head-men. Rates of interest vary from 12 to 25 per cent. per annum.

Administration.—The total revenue raised in 1883–84 under all heads, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £321,914, or an incidence per head of 7s. 0¾d. on a population of 908,548. The land-tax forms the principal source of revenue, yielding £133,212. The other principal items are stamps, excise, forest, and local funds. The District local funds created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education yielded a total of £15,147. There are 7 municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 83,384 persons. Their receipts amounted in 1883–84 to £7893, and the incidence of taxation varied from 7½d. to 2s. 3½d. per head. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 5 Assistants (of whom 3 are covenanted civilians), and in judicial matters to a Judge. For the settlement of civil disputes there are 8 courts; average distance of villages from the nearest court, 13 miles. Thirty-three officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police consisted of 745 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 1220 persons of the population and to every 5·3 square miles of the area. The total cost was £12,210, equal to £2, 17s. 2½d. per square mile of area and 3d. per head of population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 940, being 1 person to every 966 of the population. There is one jail in the District. Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855–56 there were only 16 schools, attended by 1213 pupils. In 1883–84 there were 172 schools, attended by 10,820 pupils, or an average of 1 school for every 12 villages. The Census of 1881

returned 10,991 males and 571 females under instruction, besides 24,409 males and 597 females able to read and write but not under instruction. There is one library, and two vernacular newspapers were published in 1883–84.

Medical Aspects.—The average annual rainfall during the thirteen years ending with 1881 was 97·59 inches. Mean annual temperature, 75·8° F. The prevailing disease is fever, the climate being exceedingly moist for fully half the year. Thirteen dispensaries afforded medical relief in 1881 to 566 in-door and 93,195 out-door patients; and 9782 persons were vaccinated. Vital statistics showed a reported death-rate of 26·82 per thousand in 1883. [For further information regarding Thána District, see the *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, published under Government orders, and compiled by Mr. J. M. Campbell, C.S., vol. xiii., parts i. and ii. (Government Central Press, 1882). Also see the *Bombay Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bombay Presidency.]

Thána (*Tanna*).—Chief town of Thána District, Bombay Presidency, head-quarters of Salsette Sub-division, and a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 21 miles north-east of Bombay city; lies in lat. 19° 11′ 30″ N., and long 73° 1′ 30″ E. Thána is prettily situated on the west shore of the Salsette creek, in wooded country. The fort, the Portuguese cathedral, a few carved and inscribed stones, and several reservoirs are now the only signs that Thána was once an important city. At the close of the 13th century, the fortunes of Thána seem to have been at their highest. It was the capital of a great kingdom, both in size and wealth, with an independent ruler. In 1318, Thána was conquered by Mubárik Khiljí, and a Muhammadan governor was placed in charge. In 1529, terrified by the defeat of the Cambay fleet and the burning of the Bassein coast, 'the lord of the great city of Thána' became tributary to the Portuguese. This submission did not save him in the war that followed (1530–33). The city was thrice pillaged, twice by the Portuguese and once by the Gujarátís. It was then, under the treaty of December 1533, made over to the Portuguese. Under Portuguese rule, Thána entered on a fresh term of prosperity. In 1739, with the loss of Bassein, the Portuguese power in Thána came to an end. In 1771, the English, urged by the news that a fleet had left Portugal to recover Salsette and Bassein, determined to gain possession of Thána. Negotiations for its cession failing, a force was despatched to take it by force. On the 28th December 1774, the fort was stormed, and the greater part of the garrison put to the sword.

Population (1881) 14,456, namely, males 7856, and females 6600. Hindus number 11,458; Muhammadans, 1398; Christians, 1094; Párśís, 260; Jains, 81; and 'others,' 165. The returns of sea-borne

trade for the five years ending 1878–79 show average imports worth £32,266, and exports £22,825. The railway station traffic returns show an increase in passengers from 312,309 in 1873 to 460,642 in 1880; and in goods from 2644 to 16,343 tons. Thána is a municipal town with an income in 1883–84 of £1492; incidence of taxation, 1s. 9½d. per head. This town being about an hour's journey from Bombay, many Government officials, as also persons of various other callings, are enabled to choose Thána as their place of residence, attending to their duties at Bombay during the day. Civil hospital, post-office, civil court, Government treasury, and large depôt jail in the fort built by the Portuguese.

Thána.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 5 miles north-west of Unao town. Founded by Thán Singh and Púran Singh, Chauhán Thákurs of Máinpurí in Akbar's time. Fort constructed by Thán Singh; school; one small daily and two large weekly markets. Population (1881) 2406, namely, 210 Muhammadans, 157 Bráhmans, 54 Pásís, and 1985 other castes. Three masonry and 388 mud-walled houses; mosque.

Thána Bhawán.—Ancient but decaying town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 35′ N., and long. 77° 27′ 40″ E., on a raised site, near the lowlands of the Krishna Nadi; distant from Muzaffarnagar town 18 miles north-west. Population (1881) 7628, namely, 4099 Hindus, 3502 Muhammadans, and 27 Jains. Formerly a large town, but the population has steadily decreased since the opening of new lines of commerce. Many ruined houses and decayed Musalmán families. Known under Akbar as Thána Bhim, but derives its present name from a temple to Bhawáni Devi, still much frequented by Hindu pilgrims. Centre of disaffection during the Mutiny of 1857, when the Shaikhzádas, headed by their Kází, Mahbúb Alí Khán, and his nephew, Inayat Alí, broke into open rebellion. Amongst other daring feats, they captured the Shámli *tahsíl*, and massacred the 113 men who defended it (14th September 1857). On the restoration of order, the Shaikhzádas received due punishment, and the wall of the town and eight gates were levelled to the ground. First-class police station; branch post-office. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Thandiání.—Small hill sanitarium in Abbottábád *tahsíl*, Hazára District, Punjab. Lat. 34° 15′ N., long. 73° 18′ E. Established for the convenience of officers stationed at the neighbouring post of Abbottábád. Contains some European houses and a small *bázár*, which are only occupied during the summer months. Rest-house.

Thaneswar.—Sacred town and place of Hindu pilgrimage in Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab; situated on the bank of the river SARASWATI (Sarsuti), in lat. 29° 58′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 52′ E.; 25

miles south of Ambála, and in the centre of the holy tract known as the Kurukshetra. The name was originally Sthâneswara, and is derived by General Cunningham either from the *sthâna* or abode of Iswara (or Mahádeo), or from the junction of his names as *sthânu* and Iswara, or from *sthânu* and *sar*, a lake. One of the oldest and most famous towns in India, connected with the legends of the *Mahábhárata* and the exploits of the Pándava brethren. Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim in the 7th century A.D., mentions Thaneswar as the capital of a separate kingdom, 1167 miles in circuit. Sacked by Mahmúd of Ghazní in 1011. On the rise of the Sikh power, Thaneswar fell into the hands of Mith Singh, who left his territories to his nephews. On the extinction of the family in 1850, the town lapsed to the British Government, and became for a while the head-quarters of a District. Since the removal of the civil station, however, Thaneswar has rapidly declined in prosperity, and is fast falling into decay.

The annual religious gatherings, however, still attract large numbers of pilgrims, and a continuous stream of pilgrims pours towards the shrines of Thaneswar and the Kurukshetra. The sanitary arrangements introduced by the British authorities to prevent the spread of disease have, however, largely interfered with the popularity of the festivals; and the attendance at the great festival, which in former years was said to be half a million persons, has dwindled down to less than 50,000. The sacred lake, a pool of the Saraswati (Sarsuti), forms an oblong sheet of water, 3546 feet in length and 1900 feet in breadth. During eclipses of the moon, the waters of all other tanks are believed to visit this tank at Thaneswar; so that he who then bathes in the assembled water obtains the concentrated merit of all possible ablutions. The tank is now much silted up, and the monastery beside it is quite a modern building. Indeed, there are no Hindu buildings in the town, all the old temples having been destroyed by Mahmúd of Ghazní, or, as alleged by the villagers, by Aurangzeb. The country for many miles around is holy ground, and popular estimate sets down the number of sacred sites connected with the Kauravas and Pándavas at 360. The modern town of Thaneswar crowns the summit of an ancient mound, near which rises an old and ruined fort, 1200 feet square at the top; while a suburb covers the summit of a second mound to the west.

Population (1881) 6005, namely, Hindus, 4129; Muhammadans, 1758; Sikhs, 106; and Jains, 12. Number of houses, 1300. Municipal income (1883–84), £440, or an average of 1s. 5½d. per head. Trade has greatly declined since the construction of the Grand Trunk Road, which leaves Thaneswar several miles to the west, though it lay on the route of the old Mughal road, and then formed an entrepôt of local traffic. The town has a dilapidated look, and is reported to be

gradually falling into ruin. The principal inhabitants are now Hindu priests, who live upon the contributions of the pilgrims.

Thán Lakhtar.—Native State in the Jhálawár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* LAKHTAR.

Than-lyin.—Township and town of Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* SYRIAM.

Thara (*Tara*).—State in the Pálanpur Agency, Bombay Presidency.—*See* KANKREJ.

Tharád.—Chief town of the State of Tharád and Morwára, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 24° 23′ 10″ N., long. 71° 37′ E.

Tharád and Morwára.—Native State in the Political Superintendency of Pálanpur Agency, Bombay Presidency. It extends from north to south about 35 miles, and from east to west about 25 miles. The State is situated in Northern Gujarát, on the frontier of Rájputána; and is bounded on the north by the Márwár district of Sáchor, on the east by Pálanpur State, on the south by Bhábhar and Terwára States, and on the west by Wáo State. The area is estimated at 940 square miles; and the population was returned (1881) at 65,494, occupying 154 villages. The country is flat and bare. Except a few fields of black loam found near the villages, the soil is barren and sandy. Only the common grains are grown; and as water is not found nearer the surface than from 75 to 120 feet, there is no irrigation. From April to June the heat is excessive. The prevailing disease is fever. The high road from Páli in Márwár *viâ* Sirohi to the ports of Dholera and Mándvi passes through the State. In 1819, harassed by the inroads of Khosas and other plunderers, the Tharád chief sought the help of the British Government. The present (1882–83) chief of Tharád and Morwára is named Thákur Khengarsingh, a Rájput of the Waghela clan. He lives at Tharád, and administers his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £8500; and maintains a retinue of 50 horse and 30 foot. In matters of succession, the rule of primogeniture obtains. There is 1 school, with 42 pupils.

Thar and Párkar.—British District in the east of Sind, Bombay Presidency, lying between 24° 13′ and 26° 15′ N. lat., and between 68° 51′ and 71° 8′ E. long. Area, 12,729 square miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 203,344 souls. It is bounded on the north by Khairpur State; on the east by the States of Jaisalmer, Maláni, Jodhpur, and Pálanpur; on the south by the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh); and on the west by Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at UMARKOT.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Thar and Párkar may be divided into two portions—the one called the 'Pat,' or plain of the Eastern Nára, including the Umarkot Sub-division; and the other the 'Thar,' or desert. The former, in its western part, rises from 50 to 100 feet

above the level of the Sind plain, and some of the sandhills in it may be 100 feet higher, but they are not so elevated as in the Thar. Formerly this part of the District exhibited a dry and arid appearance, owing to the insufficient supply of water in the Nára; but since the construction of the Rohri supply channel, and the consequent additional flow of water brought down by it, the valley of the Nára is now covered with jungle and marsh. Through this part of the District flow the Eastern Nára and the Mithrau Canals—the former a natural channel, greatly improved of late years, with its branches, the Chor and Thar Canals; the latter an artificial stream running to the westward of the Nára, but in some degree parallel to it for a distance of about 80 miles.

The Thar, or desert portion of the District, consists of a tract of sandhills, which present the appearance of waves, running north-east and south-west; these hills become higher towards the west, and are composed of a fine but slightly coherent sand. There are no canals or rivers of any kind in the Thar. To the south-east, again, of the Thar is the Párkar tract, which differs from the former in possessing hill ranges of hard rock, the highest being not more than 350 feet above the surrounding level. There are sandhills also in this portion of the District; but towards the east they become less elevated, and merge at last into a large open plain of stiff clay, through which, in places, limestone occasionally crops out. The peninsula of Párkar, which in its extreme south-eastern direction juts out into the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh), is flat and level, except in the immediate vicinity of the town of Nagar Párkar, where there is an extensive area of elevated land known as the Kárunjhar Hills, composed mostly of syenite rock.

In many parts of the District, beds of rivers long dried up are found intersecting the arid tract of the Thar; and these would seem to show that the waters of the Indus, or of some of its branches, once flowed through it, fertilizing what is now a wilderness, and finding their way to the sea either by one of the eastern mouths, or through the Rann, or great salt marsh of Cutch. Quantities of bricks and pottery have also been found in various places scattered over the surface.

The water system of the District, which is confined solely to that part watered by the Nára, there being no canals or rivers in Thar and Párkar proper, comprises, in the first place, the Eastern Nára, already described as being a natural channel, and most probably at some remote period the outlet to the sea of the waters of some great river like the Indus, together with its branches the Thar, Chor, and Umarkot Canals. Secondly, the Mithrau Canal, commenced in 1858–59, in order to irrigate the western or more elevated portions of this District, which the Nára is unable to reach. It is upwards of 80 miles in length (or with its branches, 123 miles), having its head in the Makhi *dandh*.

The Eastern Nára draws its water mainly from the floods in Baháwalpur State. It has its first well-marked and continuous head at Khári, a short distance from the town of Rohri; and, after passing through Khairpur State, it enters the Nára valley near the village of Mithrau, from the large Makhi *dandh* previously mentioned. Hence it skirts the sandhills as far as Sayyid Ghulám Nabí-ka-Got, after which it continues its course to the southward, passing near Nabisar and Nawákot.

Before the construction, in 1859, of the Rohri supply channel, which now throws a regular body of water into the Nára, the quantity in this latter stream was mainly dependent upon the strength of the floods or *lets* from Baháwalpur State. Years would sometimes elapse without any water at all finding its way into the Nára, while high floods would, on the other hand, be experienced for a series of seasons. The people on the lower part of the Nára believed, and, indeed, maintain to this day, that the supply was cut off by an artificial *bandh* or dam constructed by Fateh Muhammad Ghorí, a *jágírdár*, in the year 1838; and Captain Rathborne, Collector of Haidarábád (Hyderábád), in 1843 made an official report to the same effect. But no one could find the *bandh*, and Captain (now Colonel) Fife, R.E., in 1850 proved that no such *bandh* ever existed.

After the opening of the supply channel at Rohri, much of the flood water was expended in filling up the numerous depressions called *dandhs* or *kolábs*, which line the eastern bank of the Nára like a fringe throughout the greater part of its course. They are very deep, and extend some miles into the desert. To prevent this supply from being lost, strong embankments were thrown across the feeding channels leading to the *dandhs*, and the water was thus forced into the plain. It was, however, in a few years found that this annual flooding caused great damage by converting the country into a jungly swamp; and, to correct this, excavations were made in the bed of the Nára itself, so as to facilitate the flow of the water southwards.

A series of embankments on the right bank were also erected to arrest the overflow of the water, regular cultivation being made to depend on distributing channels, instead of on flood water, which latter plan, though offering great facilities for raising crops, was, at the same time, both precarious and wasteful. These remedies are still in progress. In the Sánghar *táluk* two canals, the Dimwáh and the Heranwáh, branch off from the Nára; the former has its head in the Makhi *dandh*.

In the Thar portion of the District is a salt lake called the Mokhái, from which large quantities of salt are obtained; but the cost of carriage and scarcity of forage have hitherto prevented its exportation to the Sind markets. The present system is to levy a duty on salt of 4s. per *maund* of 82 lbs. For the Thar and Párkar District, salt is supplied

to the public from the deposits of Saran near Dipla and Díliyar near Khipra. All other sources of supply are closed. In the Párkar tract between the Thar and the Rann, the soil is composed of the débris of syenite rocks, of which the Kárunjhar Hills are composed.

The principal wild animals found in the District are the hog, *pharho* or hog-deer, *chinkára*, wolf, jackal, fox, jungle-cat, hare, mongoose, otter, etc. Among birds are *goravas* (bustard), *tilúr*, geese, wild-fowl of many varieties, such as the mallard, widgeon, whistling teal, snipe, coot, water-hen, adjutant, pelican, flamingo, and various kinds of wading birds. Other birds found are the grey and black partridge, sand-grouse of several varieties, plover and quail, the eagle, vulture, kite, several kinds of hawks, crows, owls, etc. Snakes are very common, especially in the hot season. The wild hog, black partridge, and water-fowl are only met with in the Nára tract. The *gúrkhar* or wild ass frequents the Párkar, and the hyæna and lynx the Thar. The desert ponies are hardy and well made. Camels and horned cattle are bred extensively in the desert; large herds of the latter are annually driven to Gujarát for sale. The fisheries of the District are confined entirely to the Nára and the *dandhs* fed by it, the fish most commonly caught being the *jerki singára*, *dambhro*, *marko*, *popri*, *gandan*, *goj* (eels), *chitori*, *haili*, *makar*, *patno*, and *kuro*. The yearly revenue derived by Government from the Nára fisheries averages about £400. The number of canals in Thar and Párkar District is 13; total length, 254 miles.

History.—Very little is known of the early history of the District. It is not many years since the desert portion and Párkar were under the exclusive administration of the Political Agent in Cutch (Kachchh). The Soda Rájputs, the upper class of the District, who are said to be descended from Parmar Soda, are supposed to have come into this part of Sind from Ujjain about 1226 A.D., when they quickly displaced the rulers of the country. Other authorities, however, state that they did not conquer the country from the Súmras, the dominant race, before the beginning of the 16th century. The Sodas, in their turn, succumbed to the Kalhoras about 1750 A.D., since which period the District has been subject more or less to Sind. On the fall of the Kalhora dynasty, it came under the domination of the Talpurs, who built a series of forts in order to overawe the warlike population. In the Mitti and Islámkot tracts, the Talpurs are said by Raikes to have exacted two-fifths of the produce of the land; but no regular revenue system was introduced till the years 1830 and 1835, when disturbances at once took place. The Mírs sent a large force to reduce the people to submission; and several chiefs were taken prisoners, and not released until they had paid heavy fines. The Thar and Párkar District was for a long time the head-quarters of banditti who made plundering excursions into Cutch and other neighbouring Districts

On the conquest of Sind by the British in 1843, the inhabitants of this District evinced a desire to be placed under Cutch; and with this view the divisions of Baliári, Dipla, Mitti, Islámkot, Singála, Viráwáh, Pitapur, Bojásar, and Párkar were in 1844 made over to that State. Umarkot, Gadra, and other tracts on the Nára became a portion of the Haidarábád Collectorate, or rather formed part of the Deputy Collectorate of Mírpur. All emoluments from revenue-free lands enjoyed by *pátels* or head-men, as well as cesses on Hindu marriages, were abolished, and the chiefs were further forbidden to bear arms. In consequence, it would seem, of these prohibitions, the District was in 1846 represented to be in open rebellion. But quiet was soon afterwards restored; and the Soda Rájputs, who appear to have been the prime movers in this disturbance, were called upon by Government to state their grievances, of which the following is a brief outline.

They contended for their right of levying a tax of 26½ rupees (£2, 13s.) on every marriage among the Krar Baniyás, and also a fee of 1 rupee's worth of cloth for enforcing debts due to that caste. They complained that the fields they formerly enjoyed revenue free were either reduced in number or taken away altogether from them, and they maintained that in times of scarcity they were entitled to exemption from all payment of duties on opium and grain. They asserted their right as Sodas to receive food when travelling from Baniyás without any payment, and that this caste was also bound to supply them with bedsteads and coverlets. They further desired, as formerly, to be permitted to receive a portion of the Umarkot customs. The Government, in reply to this list of grievances, allowed the Sodas, as compensation for the fees derived by them from the Krar Baniyás, the annual interest at 5 per cent. on the sum of 14,000 rupees (£1400), and permitted several of the tribe to hold a certain number of fields revenue free, provided they undertook to cultivate them. They were also granted a share in the Umarkot customs, but the rest of their demands were not complied with.

In 1850, the Umarkot and Nára divisions were leased out to Soda *zamíndárs* on a light settlement; and at the end of 1854, the Commissioner of Sind, Mr. (the late Sir Bartle) Frere, introduced in the Thar a fixed assessment on a ten years' lease. Before that time, the Government share was fixed annually after an inspection of the fields and an estimate of the crop. In 1856, the desert portion of the District, together with Párkar, which had been administered by the Assistant Political Agent in Cutch since 1844, was incorporated in the Province of Sind. In 1859, a rebellion broke out in the District, necessitating the despatch of a military force under Colonel Evans from Haidarábád to quell it. This officer in the month of May of that year occupied the town of Nagar Párkar, and captured the Ráná,

driving back in the following month a large body of Kolís, who had ventured to attack the place. The Ráná and his minister were in 1868 tried for sedition, and convicted, the former being sentenced to 14 years' and the latter to 10 years' transportation. From that period down to the present time, Thar and Párkar has enjoyed peace and quietness.

Population.—The population of Thar and Párkar District, according to the Census of 1872, was 180,761 persons; and according to that of 1881, 203,344, or an increase of 12·49 per cent., occupying 36,412 houses in 73 villages. Number of unoccupied houses, 1001. Average number of persons per village, 2786; persons per occupied house, 5·5. The total area, taken at 12,729 square miles, gave the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 15·9; villages per square mile, 0·005; occupied houses per square mile, 2·8. Classified according to sex, there were—males 112,400, and females 90,944; proportion of males, 55·2 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 49,017, and girls 38,845; total children, 87,862, or 43·2 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 63,383, and females 52,099; total adults, 115,482, or 56·8 per cent.

The religious division showed the following results:—Muhammadans, 109,194, or 53·7 per cent. of the population; non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 48,440, or 23·8 per cent.; Hindus, 43,755, or 21·5 per cent.; Jains, 1038; Sikhs, 898; Christians, 14; Jews, 4; and Brahmo, 1.

The Muhammadan population consisted of — Sindís, 80,212; Balúchís, 22,629; Sayyids, 1671; Shaikhs, 206; Patháns, 135; and 'others,' 4341. According to sect, the Muhammadans were returned —Sunnís, 105,753; Shiás, 3248; and Wáhábís, 93.

The Hindus were divided into the following main castes:—Lohánas (merchants, shopkeepers, agriculturists, etc.), 11,114; Rájputs, 9290; Bráhmans, 3255; and 'others,' 20,096.

Of the Christians, 7 were Episcopalians and 7 Roman Catholics. According to race, 7 were Europeans and 7 Natives.

Bájra (Pennisetum typhoideum) is the staple food of the people, and milk is a common article of diet. The Soda tribe, formerly the dominant race in Thar and Párkar, are of Rájput origin, and warlike in character. The Khosas are robust, martial men, inured to fatigue and hard fare. They are brave and enterprising, but slothful and improvident. Chief among the nomadic tribes in the District are the Udejas, who came originally from Sind; they are a fine, athletic race, and well behaved, and have for some time past turned their attention to agricultural pursuits. The Bhíls rank very low in the social scale, and are much addicted to theft. Taken, however, as a whole, the inhabitants of Thar and Párkar are a peaceable people, neither so litigious nor so quarrelsome as their Sind neighbours.

They place great reliance on *panchâyats*, or village arbitration committees.

The language spoken in the District is a mixture of Sindí and Kachí; formerly, when Thar and Párkar was under the administration of the Political Agent at Cutch, all written correspondence was carried on in the Gujaráti language.

There were in 1883–84 three municipalities in the District, namely, UMARKOT, MITTI, and NAGAR PARKAR. Total population within municipal limits (1881), 7,195; aggregate municipal income (1883–84), £1040; the incidence of taxation varies from 1s. 5d. to 3s. per head.

Of the 73 villages of Thar and Párkar District in 1881, 10 contained less than 200 inhabitants; 1 between two and five hundred; 12 between five hundred and a thousand; 16 between one and two thousand; 13 between two and three thousand; 11 between three and five thousand; 8 between five and ten thousand; 1 between ten and fifteen thousand; and 1 between twenty and fifty thousand.

As regards occupation, the male population were distributed by the Census into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 937; (2) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 679; (3) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 863; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 44,887; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 11,507; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 53,527.

Antiquities, etc.—The remains of several old temples are to be seen in the Párkar portion of the District. One of these is a Jain temple, 14 miles north-west of Viráwáh, which contains an idol of great sanctity and repute known under the name of Gorcha. Near the same town, also, are the remains of an ancient city called Pára Nagar, covering 6 square miles in area. It is reported to have been founded by Dharma Singh, but at what period is not known, and to have been very wealthy and populous; its final decay is said to have taken place some time during the 16th century. The ruins of five or six Jain temples still exist, displaying some excellent sculpture and beautifully executed designs. Another ruined city is Rata-kot, situated on the Nára, south of the town of Khipra, and distant about 20 miles from the village of Ránáhu. It is supposed to have been in a ruinous condition for the past 500 years, and to have been originally founded about nine centuries ago by a Mughal named Rata. There are several forts in different parts of the District, such as those of Islámkot, Mitti and Singála; but they are, comparatively speaking, of modern erection, having been built for the most part under the Talpur dynasty. They are now fast falling into decay, and the materials are used for building purposes.

A fair is held yearly at the town of Pithora, near Akri, in the month of September, in honour of Pithora, a spiritual guide among the Meng-war community, and is attended by about 9000 people, principally of that tribe. Several other small fairs are held in various parts of the District.

Agriculture.—There are throughout Thar and Párkar District three seasons in which agricultural operations are carried on, namely, *kharíf*, *rabí*, and *addwah*; but the times of sowing and reaping differ somewhat in the Nára tracts from those in the Thar or desert portion of the District. These differences can be best exhibited in a tabular form, and the two following tables are accordingly given, which show also the various crops produced in each season:—

NARA TRACTS.

Seasons.	Time when		Description of Crop.
	Sown.	Reaped.	
1. *Kharíf*	June to middle of August.	Middle of October to middle of December.	Rice, *jodr* (Sorghum vulgare), *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), *til* (Sesamum indicum), cotton, tobacco, hemp, etc.
2. *Rabí*	Middle of September and October.	January and February.	Wheat, barley, *siri*, *jámbho* (Eruca sativa), and *kumba*.
3. *Addwah*	February.	April and May.	Cotton, *jodr*, *múng* (Phaseolus Mungo), and melons.

THAR AND PARKAR.

Seasons.	Time when		Description of Crop.
	Sown.	Reaped.	
1. *Kharíf*	June and July.	October and November.	Rice, *jodr*, *bájra*, *til*, *múng*, and tobacco.
2. *Rabí*	October and November.	March and April.	Wheat, barley, *jámbho*, *sirsú* (Brassica campestris proper), and *kurar*.
3. *Addwah*	January.	May and June.	Cotton, *jodr*, *múng*, and water-melons.

The prevailing soil is a light loam called by the natives *gasar*—a medium between stiff clay and fine sand. Salt-pans were, until 1878, worked to a small extent near Bakár. In January 1878, the Bakár salt works were closed. Soda, or *khára chániah*, is obtained from the

dandhs and exported; and *chiroli*, a sulphate of lime or gypsum, is found near Ghulám Nabi-jo-got. In the Umarkot plains there is a very large extent of *pat* or salt waste, especially on the north-west side, bordering on Khipra and Hála. All along the Nára are *dandhs* for about 56 miles, from which much salt is produced, mostly used for the curing of fish. The manufacture or removal of salt, however, is strictly prohibited throughout the District. The only licit sources of supply are the deposits at Saran and Dilayar. In the Dipla and Mitti *táluks*, extensive salt lakes contain almost unlimited supplies of this commodity. The chief vegetable products of Thar and Párkar are rice, *joár*, *bájra*, cotton, oil-seeds, *múng* (Phaseolus Mungo), *til*, tobacco, etc.; pulses, fruits, and vegetables are also grown. Wild products include elephant grass (Typha elephantina), from which *pankahs* or hand-fans are made; *pabban* or lotus plant; and various grasses from which ropes and mats are manufactured.

Agriculture supported (1881) 129,287 persons, or 63·58 per cent. of the population; only 45,895 were agricultural workers. Of the total area of the District, 12,729 square miles, 489 square miles were cultivated in 1881, of which 26 square miles were non-revenue-paying; the remainder, 463 square miles, together with 608 square miles, the area cultivable but unoccupied, were assessed for revenue, that is, a total of 1071 square miles; the uncultivable area being 11,632 square miles. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £26,619; average incidence of assessment, including local rates and cesses, 1s. 8½d. per cultivated acre. Average area of cultivable and cultivated land per agricultural worker, 15·3 acres. In 1883–84, 349,458 acres were under actual cultivation. Cereals and millets occupied 317,293 acres, of which 253,772 acres were under *bájra*; oil-seeds occupied 14,153 acres; fibres, 3475 acres, nearly all under cotton; and miscellaneous crops, 14,537 acres. The agricultural live stock consisted of—bullocks, 29,960; cows, 68,300; buffaloes, 8358; horses and ponies, 7631; donkeys, 37,181; sheep and goats, 98,700; camels, 15,275: dead stock—ploughs with two bullocks, 18,336; with two camels, 7500; and with two donkeys, 950; and carts, 348. The prices of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. were—wheat, 6s. 4½d.; rice (common), 6s. 2d.; *bájra*, 4s. 9d.; gram, 10s. 10d.; salt, 5s. 7d.; *múng*, 6s. 2½d. The daily wages of skilled labour varied from 1s. to 2s. 6d.; of unskilled labour, from 3¾d. to 9d.

Means of Communication.—Travelling in the Thar or desert portion of the District is very tedious and difficult, owing to the sandhills which have constantly to be crossed. Umarkot, the chief town, has communication with Haidarábád (Hyderábád) by a good road, which is bridged throughout, except where it crosses the Eastern Nára between Garhar and Saseb-ke-thal. The Government telegraph line connecting

Haidarábád with Dísa (Deesa) runs through Thar and Párkar *viâ* Umarkot, where there is an office. The postal line from Haidarábád to Bombay *viâ* Ahmadábád also passes through the District. There are 9 ferries, all on the Nára.

Commerce, etc.—The exports from Thar and Párkar consist principally of grain, wool, *ghí*, camels, horned cattle, hides, fish, salt, *cháníha*, and *pan* or *pana*, a kind of reed from which *pankahs* are made. The grain, chiefly rice and wheat, oil-seeds, cattle, goats, and sheep are sent to Gujarát, Pálánpur, and Jodhpur; hides and wool to Haidarábád; *ghí* to Cutch (Kachchh) and Gujarát; and salt, fish, *cháníha*, and *pan* to Haidarábád and Karáchí (Kurrachee). The chief imports are cotton, metals, dried fruits, dyes, piece-goods, silk, sugar-candy, and tobacco. The manufactures consist of woollen blankets and bags, camel saddles and covers, and coarse cotton cloths.

Administration.—The chief revenue and judicial authority in Thar and Párkar is vested in a Deputy Commissioner, who in his judicial capacity exercises the powers of a Magistrate of a District, together with the higher powers referred to in section 34 of the Criminal Procedure Code, 1882, and has, besides, the civil jurisdiction of a judge. Under him is a Deputy Collector, who in his judicial capacity exercises the powers of a first-class Magistrate, and tries civil cases up to 500 rupees in value; there are also 7 *múkhtiárkárs*, each having the powers of either a first or second class Magistrate, and empowered to decide civil cases up to 200 rupees in value within their respective jurisdictions. Civil courts are situated at Umarkot, Cháchra, Mitti, Nagar Párkar, Dipla, Khipra, and Sánghar. The total imperial revenue of Thar and Párkar District in 1881–82 was £32,390, and the local revenue, £1628. The land-tax yielded £25,122, and the next largest items are excise, and the *ghí* and licence tax, which yielded £3728.

The police force numbered 568 men, of whom 372 were mounted on horses and camels, 192 were rural and 4 municipal police. There is thus 1 policeman to every 358 of the population. The crime most rife in this District, as in Sind generally, is cattle-lifting. The number of such cases in 1881 was 188; other thefts numbered 108; murders, 1; hurts, assaults, and use of criminal force, 3; receiving stolen property, 15; housebreaking, 35; highway robberies, 3; other criminal offences, 212. The number of civil suits in the same year (1881) was 454—value, £3188; of these, 161 were suits for money. The only jails in the District are the permanent subordinate ones at Nagar Párkar, Khipra, Sánghar, Mitti, Dipla, and Cháchra.

In 1883–84 there were 71 schools, with 1441 pupils. The Census of 1881 returned 1123 males and 41 females as under instruction, besides

4442 males and 62 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Climate.—The climate of Thar and Párkar is somewhat similar to that of Cutch (Kachchh), and is subject to great variations of temperature, being excessively hot in the summer and very cold in the winter, the cold increasing as the sandhills are approached. From the beginning of November to the end of February the weather is pleasant and bracing, after which the hot winds set in, accompanied with heavy dust-storms. The glare and heat during the summer months are intense. The mean annual temperature (1869–74) at Umarkot is 79° F., at Nagar Párkar 85°, and at Mitti 77° F. The rainfall is not equable throughout the extensive area of the District, being heavier in Párkar than in either the Nára or Umarkot *táluks*. The average yearly fall in the towns of Umarkot and Nagar Párkar, during nineteen years ending 1881, was found to be 11·04 and 16·13 inches respectively. Taken as a whole, the rainfall is heavier than in other parts of Sind. The prevalent diseases are fevers and rheumatism; small-pox has at times committed great havoc. Cholera visited this District in a severe form in 1869, causing serious mortality. The desert portion of Thar and Párkar is, however, exceptionally free from epidemic disease. There are 4 dispensaries—at Umarkot, Mitti, Nagar Párkar, and Khipra. [For further information regarding Thar and Párkar District, see the *Gazetteer of the Province of Sind*, by Mr. A. W. Hughes (London, George Bell & Co., 1876, second edition). Also see the *Bombay Census Report* of 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bombay Government from 1880 to 1884.]

Tharawadi (*Tharrawaddy*).—British District in the Pegu Division of Lower Burma, formed in April 1878, and consisting of that portion of the old Henzada District east of the Irawadi river. Area, 2014 square miles. Population (1881) 278,155 souls. Bounded on the north by Prome District; on the east by the Pegu Yoma range, which separates it from Shwe-gyin District; on the south by Hanthawadi District; and on the west by the Irawadi river, separating it from Henzada District. Administrative head-quarters at THARAWADI, a village 68 miles north of Rangoon, and a station on the Irawadi State Railway.

Physical Aspects.—The principal feature of the District is the Pegu Yoma range, the watershed between the rivers Irawadi and Sittaung. The principal summits of the range, Baw-bwe-sa-kan and Kyauk-pyu-daung, are equal in height, each having an altitude of about 2000 feet above sea-level. The curiosity in the range is a table mountain called Kyauk-ta-da ('rock bridge'); it is so called from its shape as a bridge over a chasm; it lies between north and south, and has a length of about 560 feet. Its surface being granite, no trees grow on it. Besides the Pegu Yoma range there are many small elevations. The

prevailing soils are light alluvial, suitable for cultivation. The Irawadi for 46 miles forms the western boundary of the District; while the Myitma river, navigable for boats, runs from the south to north through the District, length about 53 miles. The greatest portion of the marsh area lies along the west border, at an average distance of about 5½ miles from the Irawadi Valley State Railway line, and extends to the left bank of the Irawadi river. There are several fisheries in these marshes, which do not dry up in summer. Reserved forests and fuel reserves are situated between the Yoma range and the railway line, covering an area of 817 square miles. The chief forest trees are teak, *thingan* (Hopea odorata), iron-wood, *pyin-ma* (Lagerstrœmia Flos-Reginæ), *in* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus), bamboo, and several canes. The wild animals generally found on the Yoma range are elephants, rhinoceros, bison, etc.; besides which there are various kinds of feathered game.

History.—*See* HENZADA DISTRICT.

Population.—The Census of 1881 returned 278,155 persons, occupying 49,846 houses in 1385 villages. Number of unoccupied houses, 2522. Average number of persons per village, 201; persons per occupied house, 5·58; persons per square mile, 138·11; villages per square mile, 0·69; occupied houses per square mile, 25. Classified according to sex, there were—males 143,413, and females 134,742; proportion of males, 51·5 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 62,610, and girls 59,649; total children, 122,259, or 43·9 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 80,803, and females 75,093; total adults, 155,896, or 56·1 per cent. The boat population was 1099, namely, males 899, and females 200, living in 204 boats.

The religious division showed the following results:—Buddhists, 270,552, or 97·3 per cent. of the population; Christians, 2363; Nát-worshippers or non-Buddhist indigenous races, whose sole religion consists in a kind of worship of spirits or 'demons,' supposed to reside in natural objects and to interfere with mankind, 2145; Hindus, 1985; and Muhammadans, 1110.

The indigenous and Indian races who inhabited Tharawadi District, according to the language table of the Census Report of 1881, were—Burmese, 255,330; Karens, 17,437; Hindustánís, 1864; Shans, 1608; Telugus, 509; Chinese, 298; Yabaings, 278; Uriyás, 250; Tamils, 134; Chins, 113; Bengálís, 102; Talaings, 79; and 'others,' 52.

The Christians according to race were—Europeans and Americans, 62; Eurasians, 127; and Natives, 2174. According to sect, there were—Baptists, 2027; members of the Church of England, 198; Roman Catholics, 130; and 'others,' 8. Of the native converts, 2019 were Baptists, 101 Roman Catholics, 51 members of the Church of England, and 3 unspecified.

Of the 1385 villages in Tharawadi District, 876 in 1881 contained less than 200 inhabitants; 429 between two and five hundred; 75 between five hundred and one thousand; and 5 between one and two thousand.

The Census of 1881 distributed the population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions—males 2926, and females 220; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers—males 290, and females 91; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc.—males 5670, and females 3769; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners—males 49,358, and females 41,288; (5) industrial class, including manufacturers and artisans—males 9221, and females 6900; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, children, and persons of unspecified occupation—males 75,948, and females 82,474.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supported (1881) 211,516 persons, or 76·04 per cent. of the population. In 1881, of the total area of the District, 2014 square miles, 288 square miles were cultivated and assessed for revenue; the area cultivable being 1085 square miles; and uncultivable, 641 square miles. The total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses paid on land, in the same year, was £34,376; the average incidence of assessment, including local rates and cesses, 3s. 8½d. per acre of cultivated land paying revenue. Average area of cultivated land per head of agricultural population, 0·87 acre.

The principal crops grown in Tharawadi District are rice, oil-seeds, tobacco, and vegetables. In 1883–84, the total area actually cultivated was 266,323 acres. Rice occupied 236,676 acres; oil-seeds, 3056 acres; tobacco, 2537 acres; vegetables, 1256 acres; plantains, 213 acres; mixed fruit-trees, 8131 acres; *taungya* hill gardens, 2170 acres; 'others,' 5784 acres; and land under miscellaneous cultivation, not assessed, 6500 acres. The average rent per acre of land suited for—rice, 9s. 6d.; oil-seeds, 3s. 6d.; cotton, 3s.; tobacco, 3s. 1½d.; mixed products, 3s. 5½d.; pulse, 3s. The average produce of land per acre was—rice, 960 lbs.; cotton, 420 lbs.; oil-seeds, 350 lbs.; tobacco, 548 lbs.; mixed products, 913 lbs.; peas, 525 lbs. The agricultural live stock consisted of—cows and bullocks, 71,674; buffaloes, 38,067; horses and ponies, 539; sheep and goats, 507; pigs, 5037; elephants, 128: dead stock—ploughs, 27,173; carts, 32,458; and boats, 986. The price of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. was—rice, 10s.; cotton, 18s. 3d.; tobacco, 16s.; oil-seeds, 12s. A plough bullock cost from £7 to £8; a buffalo, from £4, 10s. to £10. The daily wages of skilled labour ranged from 2s. to 4s.; of unskilled workmen, from 1s. to 2s.

Administration.—In 1883–84, the total revenue of Tharawadi Dis-

trict was £75,322, of which the land-tax contributed £41,832. For the settlement of civil suits and for revenue purposes there are 8 courts. Eight officers share the administration of criminal justice. Average distance of villages from the nearest court, 8 miles. The total strength of the regular police in 1883–84 consisted of 255 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 1090 persons and to 7·8 square miles of the area. The total cost was £7812, equal to £3, 17s. 6¾d. per square mile of area and 6¾d. per head of population. Total number of schools, public, private, and indigenous, in 1883–84, 193, attended by 7919 pupils. The Census of 1881 returned 21,592 males and 3141 females as under instruction, besides 57,714 males and 1350 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—In 1883, the rainfall was 106·27 inches. The vital statistics of 1883 show a total of 2499 recorded deaths. The dispensary at Tharawadi relieved, in the same year, 373 in-door and 2031 out-door patients; of these, 299 were fever cases. [For further information regarding Tharawadi District, see the *British Burma Census Report* of 1881, and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of British Burma from 1880 to 1884.]

Thárián-ghát.—Village at the southern foot of the Khási Hills, Assam, on the main road from Cherrá Púnjí to Sylhet; police outpost and *dák* bungalow.

Tharrawaddy (*Tharawadi*).—District of Lower Burma.—*See* THARAWADI.

Thárn Sháh.—Town in Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated 7 miles north-west from Naushahro, on the Naulákhi Canal, which is here navigable by large boats. Lat. 26° 57′ N., long. 68° 8′ E. Population (1881) 2236. Municipal revenue (1883–84), £120; incidence of taxation, 10d. per head. Head-quarters of a *tappadár*. Market, travellers' rest-house, and school. Manufacture of coarse country cloth; cotton twist and goat's hair cloth are also made. Grain is largely exported to Sukkur by boat.

Thathayangarpet.—Town in Námkal *táluk*, Salem District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 4591, namely, Hindus 4518, and Muhammadans 73, occupying 780 houses. Thathayangarpet includes the neighbouring village of Pilláthurai. The streets are well built; and a sanitary establishment is maintained from local funds. Manufacture of white cloth similar to that of Námkal.

Thatiá.—Town in Tirwá *tahsíl*, Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated at the meeting of several unmetalled roads, 7 miles distant from Tirwá town, and 36 miles from Fatehgarh. Population (1881) 4312. Although Thatiá has much decayed of late years in trade and population, it contains a thriving *bázár*, at which

markets are held every Tuesday and Friday. A large cattle market outside the town is frequented by breeders from the surrounding country, and the place is famed for its tanneries. It was formerly noted also for its cotton printing and trade in cloth and salt. Police station, post-office, school, and *sarái*. A high mound just outside the town to the south marks the fort formerly occupied by a Bághel Rájput family, owning estates in Tálgrám *parganá*. On the cession of the country to the British in 1801, the chief resented the change of rulers, and rebelled; his fort was stormed and besieged, and his title and estates confiscated. The fort, however, continued the home of the family till 1857, when the representative of the family joined the rebels. On the restoration of order, the chief was transported to the Andamans, and the fort blown up.

Thatiá Tirwá.—*Tahsíl* of Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* TIRWA.

Thato.—*Táluk* and town in Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* TATTA.

Tha-tun.—Township in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. Running northwards is a range of hills, a continuation of the Martaban Mountains, which attains its greatest altitude near Tha-tun town. East of this line of hills, a narrow strip of forest-clad and but slightly cultivated country is closed in on the east by the Kyauk-sa-rit river, and lower down by the Bin-laing, which is formed by the junction of the Kyauk-sa-rit and Dun-tha-mi. Westward to the Bi-lin stretch extensive plains, partially under rice, but liable to inundation, and therefore to a great extent uncultivable. These floods are due partly to the spill of the Bi-lin; but an embankment now affords some protection to the surrounding plain. More defences, however, are needed, and the outlet channels require improving. The Tha-tun river flows almost parallel to the hills, at no great distance from their western side. This township is divided into 5 revenue circles. Population (1881) 31,312; gross revenue, £9736.

Tha-tun.—Town in Amherst District, and head-quarters of the township of the same name, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Population (1881) 3218. Now of little importance, but one of the earliest places mentioned in Talaing history. Some centuries before Christ, it was the capital of an independent kingdom. According to native historians, the city was founded in the 17th century B.C., but its history is involved in obscurity. It was subsequently superseded by Pegu, which was captured by A-naw-ra-ta, King of Burma, in the 10th century. The taking of Tha-tun is described at length in the Burmese chronicles. The town contains several pagodas, but most of these are mutilated or in ruins.

Thauk-ye-gat.—River in Taung-ngu District, Tenasserim Division,

Lower Burma. It rises in lat. 19° 28′ N., in the maze of mountains to the east of the Sittaung. After flowing southwards for some miles, the Thauk-ye-gat turns west, leaving the hills about 20 miles west of Taung-ngu, and joins the SITTAUNG 5 miles south of that town. It drains an area of about 1000 square miles. Its former name was Mya-chaung, or 'emerald stream,' from its greenish colour. It is fed by mountain streams, and its waters are always clear, cool, and refreshing. Between its upper course and the Sittaung river is enclosed a mountainous tract nearly 20 miles wide, rising to an elevation of 4000 feet Teak was formerly found in great quantities in the basin of the Thauk-ye-gat; but now it has only been preserved on the slopes that are too steep for *taungya* or hill-garden cultivation. For commercial purposes, however, the value of the timber is limited, owing to the rocky nature of the bed of the Thauk-ye-gat, which renders its transportation to the Sittaung difficult.

Thaung-yin.—River in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; forming part of its northern boundary, and separating it from Siamese territory. It rises in lat. 16° 27′ 46″ N., and long. 98° 50′ 50″ E., and, after a north-north-west course of 197 miles, falls into the SALWIN. Its breadth varies from 100 to 1000 feet. Between Mya-wa-dí—an old and once fortified town, but now a mere village—and its mouth, there are 47 rapids and falls, down which the water rushes with great velocity, rendering navigation impossible. The Thaung-yin is of importance as the outlet for the timber brought down from the rich teak forests covering the mountains amongst which it flows. But the working of these forests is tedious and expensive, on account of the distance over which the timber has to be floated before it reaches the Salwin, the time required for the operation being four months.

Thayet-myo (*Thayet*).—British District in the Pegu Division of Lower Burma. Area, 2397 square miles. Population (1881) 169,560 souls. Bounded on the north by Upper Burma; on the east by Taung-ngu District; on the south by Prome; and on the west by Sandoway. Lying immediately south of Upper Burma, Thayet-myo District touches the frontier line of Lower Burma, demarcated in 1853 by Lord Dalhousie, after the annexation of the delta of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). The Governor-General directed that the frontier should run as nearly as possible due east and west from Mye-deh, where the British had their most advanced post. The northern boundary of Thayet-myo, from the Arakan to the Pegu Yoma range, is almost 93 miles in length. The most northerly point is marked by a pillar, situated in lat. 19° 29′ 3″ N., which bears inscriptions in Burmese and English. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at THAYET-MYO TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Thayet-myo differs considerably

from the rest of Pegu, inasmuch as it contains no wide open plains, or tracts of virgin soil, such as may be seen lower down the valley of the Irawadi. On the east and west are the Pegu and Arakan Yoma ranges respectively; and the face of the country, where it does not rise into mountains, is everywhere broken by low ranges of hills, many of which are barren and destitute of all vegetation. In the intervening valleys the husbandman reaps a precarious harvest, with much greater trouble and expense than have to be undergone farther south. The Arakan Yomas in this District do not exceed 5000 feet in height, their most elevated points being Kyi-daung on the northern frontier line, Nat-u-daung and Shwe-daung-maung-nit-ma, a double peak. The furious storms which sweep along the higher slopes of these mountains keep them bare of large timber; but from a few hundred feet below the summit, their sides are covered with bamboos and fine trees. Major Allan, when laying down the frontier line of the District, ascended the Kyi-daung peak, and described the Arakan Yomas as being very picturesque, and watered by numerous streams. Four passes cross this range into Sandoway; but these can only be used by persons on foot, and in the dry season. The most southern leads from Kaing-gyi-myaung in the Ka-ma township up the ravine of the Ma-de stream to the village of Meh-za-li in Arakan, a distance of between 30 and 40 miles. Another route leads northwards from Ywa-thit to the police post of Min-deh on the La-mu river, a distance of 30 miles. The third and fourth routes lie close together, and are known by the same name, Ma-í. They lead from the villages of Yin-ywa and Kaing-gyi to Lin-di in Sandoway. The Eastern or Pegu Yoma range in Thayet-myo District nowhere attains a height of more than 2000 feet above sea-level. Its slopes are clothed with dense forest, and in the valleys and ravines water is found all the year round. These mountains are traversible at almost all points in the dry season by foot-passengers, and by unladen cattle and elephants.

The principal river of the District is the IRAWADI, which traverses Thayet-myo from north to south, entering it at the frontier of Lower Burma, and passing into Prome District near Prome town. Its maximum breadth here is about 3 miles; its banks are everywhere high, and nowhere in Thayet-myo liable to floods. The dry-weather channel varies during the course of years, but the changes generally are slow. In 1855, when the military station of Thayet-myo was formed, the river at all seasons ran immediately under its site; now, in 1879, during the dry weather a sandbank half a mile or more wide has formed between the high bank on which the station is situated and the water's edge. Other instances of changes in the course of the Irawadi may be found in the only two islands of any size which occur in the District—Ye-baw opposite the town of Thayet-myo, and Nyaung-bin-seip between the village of

that name and Ka-ma. In the dry season, on the river falling, the former is connected with the left bank, the latter with the right. Eighty years ago, the river, when full, flowed on the other sides of those islands. The navigable channel varies considerably, owing to the shiftings of the sands; yet there are but few places, even when the river is at its lowest in January, February, and March, in which a fathom of water cannot be found. The shallowest spot is near the mouth of the But-leh, where sometimes only 4 or 5 feet of water are found for a few days in the year.

The drainage from the two boundary watersheds finds its way into the Irawadi by three main streams on the west, and by two on the east: the Pun, the Ma-tun, and the Ma-de; and the Kye-ni and the But-leh, respectively. The Pun rises in Upper Burma, and, entering Lower Burma near the village of Myin-byin, joins the Irawadi after a few miles, just above Thayet-myo town. With a strong current and sudden rises and falls in the rains, during the dry weather it becomes a tiny stream running often beneath banks of sand. The Ma-tun or Min-dun rises north of Lower Burma between two lofty peaks of the Arakan Mountains, and, flowing in a south-easterly direction, traverses the frontier line before it descends from the higher range, and falls into the Irawadi just above Ka-ma, after a course of 150 miles; navigable by the largest boats during the rains. Large quantities of the produce of its fertile valley are brought down on bamboo rafts, and logs of teak timber are floated down singly to be rafted in the Irawadi. It has three main affluents—the Mu, the Hlwa, and the Pa-ni. The Pa-ni rises in Upper Burma, and entering Lower Burma near the village of Kwe-dauk, has thence a direct course of about 30 miles, till it joins the Ma-tun a few miles above its mouth, at Tham-ba-ya; navigable during the rains, but little used owing to the rapidity of its current and its sudden rises and falls. Of the two eastern tributaries of the Irawadi in this District, the Kye-ni rises in the Yoma range in Upper Burma, and after flowing for some distance nearly due west, turns south, and falls into the Irawadi just below Mye-deh. The But-leh brings down a large volume of water in the rains, but is unnavigable owing to its sudden freshets and the swiftness of its current. Near its mouth it is spanned by a wooden bridge 450 feet long, across which is carried the Rangoon and Mye-deh road.

Several salt and hot springs occur in Thayet-myo District. Nine and a half miles north-north-west from Ka-ma is situated the spot where the curious manifestation known as the 'Spirit Fire' takes place. This is caused by the ignition by some unknown means of the gas which is stored up in subterranean cracks. Petroleum is found near Pa-dauk-bin, 7 miles north-north-west from Thayet-myo; also at Ban-byin, about 9 miles from the same town. Extensive lime quarries exist in the Tun-daung range, a few miles south of Thayet-myo. [For further

details regarding the geology of the District, see the records of Mr. W. Theobald (of the Geological Survey of India), No. 4 for 1869, No. 1 for 1870, and No. 2 for 1871.] The chief forest trees are teak (Tectona grandis), *in* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus), *sha* (Acacia Catechu), *pyin-gado* (Xylia dolabriformis), *tauk-kyan* (Terminalia Arjuna), *kut-ko* (Albizzia Lebbek), *gyo* (Schleichera trijuga), *yin-daik* (Dalbergia cultrata), etc. Timber-cutting on the Government reserves of teak is forbidden; *pa-douk* (Pterocarpus indicus) can only be felled by persons with trade-permits, who pay duty.

The principal animals found in Thayet-myo are leopards, wild cats, barking deer, elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, black bears, and wild hog. Silver pheasants and partridges are abundant throughout the District.

History.—Thayet-myo is but rarely mentioned in Burmese annals. In the semi-mythical period of Burmese history, the country of which Thayet-myo forms a part appears to have been inhabited by the Pyus, one of the three tribes from which the present Burmese race has sprung, the other two being the Kanran or Kanyan and the Thek. The Pyu and the Thek are sometimes spoken of as one tribe. In later years, when missionaries from India had converted the people to Buddhism, and classical Pali names were taken generally from the countries mentioned in the sacred books, the lower portion of Thayet-myo District belonged in all probability to Tharekhettra (the modern Prome); whilst the upper tract was included in Thunaparanta (Sa-gu, Sa-lin), on the right bank of the Irawadi, and in Tam-pa-di-pa (Pagan, Ava) on the left bank. The dominions of the first Burmese monarchy, the capital of which was at Ta-gaung, never extended so far south as Thayet-myo; but when the Prome dynasty was founded by Dut-ta-baung, about 444 B.C., this District was comprised within his territories. On the fall of the Prome kingdom, about the end of the 1st century of the Christian era, Tha-mun-da-reit, the fugitive Governor of Prome, escaped and remained a few years at Min-dun, where he built a city on the site of the present town, and ruled for seven years. Tha-mun-da-reit then appointed his uncle as governor, and, going north, founded a kingdom at Pagan. Here he was succeeded by a scion of the old Ta-gaung race, whose dynasty flourished for more than 1100 years. During this time, Thayet-myo District formed an integral portion of the kingdom of Pagan. The last king of Tha-mun-da-reit's line appointed his son Min-shin-saw as governor of Thayet-myo. Several internal revolts occurred subsequently; the District was captured by Shan chieftains, and its history during this period is highly untrustworthy. In the course of years, Thayet-myo was parcelled out amongst various governors, and so remained until the annexation of Pegu by the British in 1852–53, when it was formed into a Sub-division of Prome District. In 1870, Thayet-myo was erected into a separate jurisdiction, and placed under a Deputy Commissioner.

Population.—In 1855, the number of inhabitants in Thayet-myo District was estimated at 42,482, exclusive of cantonments and river population. In August 1872, a regular Census was taken for the first time. The number of inhabitants was ascertained to be 156,816, inclusive of cantonments and floating population. The last Census of 1881 returned 169,560, showing an increase of 12,744, or 8·1 per cent., on the figures of 1872. The people dwelt in 2 towns and 870 villages, containing 34,080 occupied and 4790 unoccupied houses. Area of the District, 2397 square miles. Towns and villages per square mile, 0·37; houses per square mile, 16·21; persons per square mile, 70·74; persons per town and village, 194; persons per occupied house, 4·97. Classified according to sex, there were—males 87,308, and females 82,252; proportion of males, 51·5. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 34,556, and girls 33,139; total children, 67,695, or 39·9 per cent. of the population; 15 years and upwards, males 52,752, and females 49,113; total adults, 101,865, or 60·1 per cent. The boat population numbered 1790, namely, males 1406, and females 384, living in 389 boats.

The great bulk of the population are of pure Burmese origin. Actual poverty is almost unknown among them, but wealth is equally rare. The Kyins or Chins, a hill tribe, number 16,416. Thayet-myo has increased steadily in population under British rule, and it possesses a larger proportion of inhabitants to its cultivated or cultivable area than any other District in the Province. This is probably due to its healthy climate.

The religious division showed the following results:—Buddhists, 148,629, or 87·6 per cent. of the population; Nát-worshippers or non-Buddhist indigenous tribes, whose sole religion consists in a kind of worship of spirits or 'demons,' supposed to reside in natural objects and to interfere with mankind, 14,100, or 8·3 per cent.; Hindus, 2620; Christians, 2349; Muhammadans, 1861; and Jew, 1.

The indigenous and Indian races who inhabited Thayet-myo District, according to the language table of the Census of 1881, were—Burmese, 145,948; Chins or Kyins, 16,416; Telugus, 2896; Tamils, 1915; Hindustánís, 1476; Shans, 645; Karens, 440; Bengálís, 279; Chinese, 146; and 'others,' 89.

The Christians according to race were—Europeans and Americans, 1657; Eurasians, 114; and Natives, 578. According to sect there were—members of the Church of England, 1336; Roman Catholics, 875; Presbyterians, 61; Baptists, 31; Wesleyans, 44; and 'others,' 2. Of the native converts, 498 were Roman Catholics, 57 members of the Church of England, 19 Baptists, and 4 'others.'

The Chins or Kyins are a race of mountaineers, scattered over all the hilly country between Eastern Bengal, the western provinces of China,

and the borders of Annam and Cambodia, but inhabiting more especially the chain of hills which stretches southwards from the North-Eastern Himálayas to Cape Negrais. In the north they are said to be wild and fierce, and those on the western slopes of the Arakan mountains are described as the least civilised of the wild tribes living in the hill tracts. In British territory they are quiet and harmless. They have developed no form of government higher than the patriarchal, and have no written language. Their sole pursuits are hunting and agriculture of the nomadic sort called *taungya;* but under British rule they are gradually taking to ordinary rice cultivation, and, with the acquisition of fields in the plains, lose much of their propensity for roving. A Chin rarely takes to violent crime; but when he does, he becomes and remains a most dangerous character,—vindictive, wantonly and brutally cruel and merciless, exhibiting great boldness in attack, and great skill in evading capture.

Symes, who visited Ava at the end of the last century, described the Chins as 'children of nature, delighting in their wild and native freedom, for the most part insuperably averse to hold communication with the people of the plains.' Colonel Yule represents them as of Indo-Chinese race, and related to the Kukís, Nágás, etc. Sir Arthur Phayre appears to consider that their own tradition of their origin—that they are of the same lineage as the Arakanese and Burmese, the stragglers from armies or moving hordes left in the mountains—is correct. Dr. Mason, however, would class them with the Karens.

If a Chin is able to speak a little Burmese, and is asked as to his religion, he will probably answer that, following the custom of his ancestors, he worships the most excellent lord Gautama; but in saying this, he is only repeating the formula which he has often heard from his Burmese neighbours. The Chins acknowledge one God, a spirit, the creator and ruler of the universe, who is so good that they have nothing to fear from him, and so need not worship him. But they worship, with propitiatory offerings of *khaung* (fermented drink) and sacrificial meats, the demons or *náts* who are looked upon as the authors of all evil, and of whom there is an innumerable body. This *khaung* or fermented drink is an essential in Chin *nát* oblations, and indeed of Chin life generally, the excessive drinking of which converts their feasts into scenes of disgusting drunkenness.

Chin girls are given in marriage by their brothers, not by their parents. When a girl is born she is especially assigned to one of her brothers, or, if she has none, to one of her father's sister's sons, whose consent has to be obtained by any one who aspires to her hand; and who, after her marriage, must be treated with the greatest respect by her husband. If the husband visits the brother, he must take with him a present of *khaung;* and should the brother visit him, he must present

to him *khaung* and pork, or, if his circumstances are such that he cannot do this, he must make profound apologies.

A death is made an occasion of much feasting. Bullocks, buffaloes, pigs, and fowls are slaughtered, according to the means of the family, to entertain the guests, and to propitiate the ancestral spirits, so that the deceased may safely reach the happy land, Nga-thein. The corpse, with a fowl tied to one of its big toes, is carried in a stretcher to the burning-place, and, together with the fowl, is burned. The bones of the deceased, plucked from the embers, are washed in *khaung*, rubbed with turmeric, and placed in a pot, where they remain for a year or more, till they can be taken to the family burying-ground, where they are finally deposited.

It has hitherto been the custom with Chin young women, soon after they arrive at years of puberty, to tattoo the whole of their faces with vertical and closely adjoining narrow black lines, which gives them a most extraordinary appearance. The origin of the custom is not known. According to some, it is to prevent the young men of other tribes from falling in love with them. According to others, it is in order to prevent the Burmans from depriving the Chins, as they once did, of their most comely virgins. And according to others, to be able to trace their women when carried away by other tribes. The custom was lately universal, but in British territory it is slowly dying out.

The Chins in appearance resemble the Burmans much more than any of their cognate tribes. A Chin man, when he abandons his natural dress, which is nothing but a narrow strip of cloth, and adopts the Burman waist-cloth, is indistinguishable from a Burman save by the absence of tattooing on the legs. Now that the custom of so marking the limbs is by no means universally followed among the Burmese, this distinguishing mark is not a safe one. The women are naturally pretty, and seem far less willing than the men to adopt the Burmese costume, generally wearing a dark blouse ornamented with red and white thread.

The Census of 1881 returned the total number of Chins in Lower Burma as upwards of 55,015 within the Province, namely, in Thayet-myo District, 16,416; Kyauk-pyu, 11,617; Prome, 10,662, chiefly in the Padaung township; Akyab, 5707; Sandoway, 5045; Henzada, 3652; and in Northern Arakan, Rangoon town, Hanthawadi, Tharawadi, Thon-gwa, Taung-ngu, and Bassein Districts, 1916.

The chief towns in the District are—THAYET-MYO, the head-quarters station, population (1881) 16,097; ALLAN-MYO, population 5825; Ywa-taung, population 2804; KA-MA, population 1796; and MIN-DUN, population 1210.

Of the 872 towns and villages within Thayet-myo District, 634 in 1881 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 211 between two and five hundred; 21 between five hundred and one thousand; 3

between one and two thousand; 1 between three and five thousand; 1 between five and ten thousand; and 1 between fifteen and twenty thousand.

The Census of 1881 distributed the population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions—males 4379, and females 120; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers—males 928, and females 160; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc.—males 2752, and females 600; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners—males 29,996, and females 25,736; (5) industrial class, including manufacturers and artisans—males 7584, and females 7270; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, children, and persons of unspecified occupation—males 41,669, and females 48,366.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supported (1881) 129,223, or 76·21 per cent. of the population. In 1881, of the total area of the District, 176 square miles were cultivated and assessed for revenue; the area cultivable was 1066 square miles; and uncultivable, 1155 square miles. The amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses paid on land, in the same year, was £11,274; the average incidence of assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, 1s. 11¾d. per acre of cultivated land paying revenue. Average area of cultivated land per head of agricultural population, 0·87 acre.

The principal crops raised in Thayet-myo District are rice, oil-seeds, cotton, tobacco, and onions. In 1883–84, the total area actually cultivated was 122,492 acres. Rice occupied 71,124 acres; oil-seeds, 15,848 acres; cotton, 2347 acres; tobacco, 4076 acres; plantains, 1963 acres; *thetke*, 316 acres; mixed fruit-trees, 2518 acres; chillies, 1486 acres; onions, 2199 acres; mulberry, 120 acres; custard apple, 41 acres; *taungya* or hill gardens, 13,387 acres; and mixed products, 7067 acres. The average produce of land per acre was—rice, 945 lbs.; cotton, 100 lbs.; oil-seeds, 460 lbs.; tobacco, 900 lbs.; chillies, 1090 lbs.; mixed products, 1800 lbs.; vegetables, 950 lbs.; onions, 7200 lbs.; plantains, 1960 lbs.; mixed fruits, 1390 lbs. The average rent per acre of land suited for—rice, 2s. 8d.; oil-seeds, 3s. 4½d.; cotton, 3s.; tobacco, 2s. 6d.; *dhani*, 2s. 3d.; mixed fruit-trees, mixed products, and vegetables, each 3s.; plantains, chillies, and mulberry, each 2s. 3d. The agricultural live stock consisted of—cows and bullocks, 95,832; horses and ponies, 620; buffaloes, 18,739; donkeys, 140; sheep and goats, 1387; pigs, 10,258; elephants, 39: dead stock—ploughs, 25,837; carts, 17,701; and boats, 894.

A bushel of good unhusked rice, if well cleaned, will give 31 lbs. of rice. During the exceptionally good harvest of 1872, 100 bushels of unhusked rice sold at 50 rupees, or £5, on the river bank, near the

frontier; at 40 rupees, or £4, lower down the river; and at 60 rupees, or £6, at Min-dun. The *taungya* or hill-garden system of cultivation is very prevalent in Thayet-myo District. The usual crops thus grown are rice and cotton, or sesamum and cotton and vegetables. The average size of a *taungya* is 2 acres, and the value of the produce varies from £5 to £10. On some of the better lands, the growth of jungle is so rapid that *taungya* can be formed on the same spot every fourth year; but, as a rule, *taungya* land is worked only every seventh year.

The cotton of Thayet-myo is perhaps the best in Burma. Formerly, the produce of the District was bought up by Chinese merchants, who established factories for cleaning it on the banks of the Irawadi; thence it was exported by boat to Amarapúra and Ba-maw, and from the latter place on the backs of mules into China. Its price at Amarapúra used to be sometimes as much as 2½ *ánnás*, or 3¾d. per lb. Since the annexation of Pegu the course of trade has changed, and all the cotton of the District goes down the Irawadi to Rangoon. The merits of Thayet-myo cotton appear to be that it is exceedingly strong, its colour is good, and its seeds are abundantly enveloped in wool. It is grown entirely in *taungya* clearings, and is generally sown together with rice or sesamum.

At Allan-myo and Ywa-taung there are extensive factories, where all the cotton brought to market is cleaned and roughly baled before being exported to Rangoon. The cotton-cleaning machine consists of a framework of four posts, a bamboo pedal, a fly-wheel and two cylinders placed close to one another, the upper one being of thin iron, and the lower somewhat larger and of wood. The bamboo pedal is attached by a string to the fly-wheel, and the wooden cylinder has a handle at the end opposite to the fly-wheel. The operator, standing in front of the apparatus, with one foot works the pedal, which communicates a rapid motion to the fly-wheel, and thence to the iron cylinder; with one hand he turns the handle of the wooden cylinder, and with the other he feeds the machine, inserting small quantities of cotton between the two cylinders, which catch it up; and whilst the wool passes through between the cylinders, the seed, which is too large to pass, is separated from the wool and left behind. With this apparatus one operator will clean about 12 *viss* (43 lbs.) of raw cotton in a day, turning out about 4½ *viss* (16 lbs.) of cleaned cotton. There are about 4000 of these machines at work in the District. A calculation based on the number of machines, the number of days which they work in the year, and the amount which each machine will clean in a day, makes the estimated amount of raw cotton cleaned in a year 728,000 *viss*, or 1153 tons. Taking the average ratio of cleaned to uncleaned cotton to be 100 to 265, the amount of cleaned cotton turned out in a year would amount to 274,717 *viss* (435 tons). The average price of raw cotton at the

river-side marts during the last few years has been Rs. 20 (£2) per 100 *viss*, and of cleaned cotton, Rs. 60 (£6) per 100 *viss*; cart-hire from the interior costs about Rs. 5 (10s.) for every 30 miles, an ordinary cart carrying about 150 *viss* at a time.

Thayet-myo is also the largest tobacco-growing District in Burma. The plant is grown chiefly on sandbanks in the Irawadi which are submerged during the rains, and in the beds of the smaller streams. Some foreign varieties have been successfully introduced. Considerable care is shown in the cultivation of the plant; but the native method of drying the leaf in the sun diminishes the value of the produce. The largest out-turn per acre is about 400 *viss* (1460 lbs.).

The two Districts of Prome and Thayet-myo supply the greater portion of the cutch manufactured in British Burma. The mulberry-tree is extensively cultivated for the rearing of silkworms. The price of raw silk varies from £1, 10s. to £2 per *viss* (3·65 lbs.).

The average size of a holding in Thayet-myo District is about 3 acres. A 200 bushel plot is considered to be the ordinary amount of land which one man and a pair of bullocks can cultivate. The usual price of unhusked rice before 1852–53 was from £2 to £2, 10s. per 100 bushels; latterly it has been from £5 to £6, and even more. In 1883–84, the price of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. was—rice, 5s. 8½d.; wheat, 6s. 11½d.; cotton, 6s. 8d.; salt, 4s. 2½d.; tobacco, 10s.; oil-seeds, 10s.; cutch, 15s.; cocoa-nut oil, £1, 7s.; wood-oil, 10s.; earth-oil, 12s. A plough bullock costs £5; and a buffalo, £6. Wages ruled in 1883–84 as follows:—Skilled labourers, 2s. per diem; unskilled, 1s.

Commerce, etc.—The principal exports of Thayet-myo District are betel-nuts, cotton twist and yarn, crockery, *nga-pi* or dried fish-paste, piece-goods, rice, salt, and raw silk. The imports comprise raw cotton, silk goods, indigo, grain, hides, molasses, gums, lac, oil-seeds, petroleum, ponies, jade, and precious stones. On the annexation of Pegu, a frontier custom-house was established at Mye-deh. The exports on which dues were levied, and the rates of such dues, were—rice, 5s. per ton; rice in the husk, half that rate; salt, 14s. 2d. per ton; betel-nut and all preparations of fish, 10 per cent. *ad valorem*. Dues at the rate of 10 per cent. *ad valorem* were levied on imports of all kinds, with the exception of coin, precious stones, cotton, grain and pulse, and living animals, which were free, and teak timber and spirits, for which special rates were provided by Act XXX. of 1854. Dues were levied at these rates until June 1863. In 1855–56, the total value of the import trade was £149,497; in 1862–63, it rose to £386,600. In 1855–56, the value of the exports from Thayet-myo was £365,226; in 1862–63, it was £836,245. This source of revenue was abandoned by the treaty made with the King of Burma on the 10th of November 1862, which provided

for an optional abolition of inland customs on both sides of the frontier, and likewise granted the boon of freedom from sea-customs duties to goods landed in Rangoon for transport to Upper Burma. In 1867, the duty on imports was reduced from £1 to 10s. per cent. *ad valorem*; and export duties, hitherto levied at 12s. per cent., were reduced to 10s. per cent. *ad valorem*. Later in the same year, October 1867, the Burmese Government bound itself by treaty to levy no more than the above reduced rates for a period of ten years, the British Government agreeing not to re-impose the frontier customs duties as long as the Burmese Government should collect only the 5 per cent. *ad valorem* duties. Although duties have ceased to be levied on the British side, an establishment is still maintained to register the value of goods carried by boats and steamers. In 1866–67, the value of the trade so registered was £1,117,469. In 1882–83, the total value of the river-borne trade of Thayet-myo District was £2,907,611.

Administration.—The ordinary amount of revenue realized in Thayet-myo District under Burmese rule was about £5000; and the largest sum on record was £10,234, exclusive of the local income. It was raised in different ways in different tracts. In Mye-deh, the owners of cattle were divided into three classes, according to the number of beasts they possessed; fishermen were taxed; and landing, market, and brokerage fees were levied. In Thayet-myo the tax was sometimes levied on cattle-owners, sometimes at so much per house, sometimes on land, and was paid in kind. At one period the revenue was remitted, and Thayet-myo was required to furnish, equip, and pay a contingent of 500 soldiers. In 1870–71, the year in which Thayet-myo was formed into a separate jurisdiction, the revenue was £26,989; in 1881–82, £34,622. The local revenue in these years amounted to £2301 and £7881 respectively. In 1881–82, the incidence of taxation per head of population was 4s. 1d. Revenue in 1883–84, £39,184, of which the land-tax contributed £12,053. The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner and Assistants. The police force numbers 870 men of all ranks. Jail in Thayet-myo town, with a daily average of 275 prisoners in 1883. Total number of schools, public, private, and indigenous, in 1883–84, 233, attended by 7782 pupils. The Census of 1881 returned 9031 males and 533 females as under instruction, besides 35,472 males and 773 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The chief characteristic of the climate of Thayet-myo District is its comparative dryness. The average annual rainfall of Thayet-myo town for the twelve years ending 1881 was 47·47 inches. The average monthly temperature for the four years ending 1881 was—January, 68·8° F.; February, 73·5°; March, 81·7°; April, 87·9°; May, 85·9°; June, 80·2°; July, 80·7°; August, 80·5°; September, 80·9°;

October, 80·5°; November, 77·1°; and December, 71·9° F. The annual average was 79·1° F. The vital statistics of 1883 show a total of 2905 recorded deaths. The hospital and dispensary at Thayet-myo town relieved 411 in-door and 5384 out-door patients; of these 781 were fever cases. Cattle disease is very prevalent. [For further information regarding Thayet-myo District, see the *British Burma Gazetteer*, compiled by authority (Rangoon Government Press, 1879), vol. ii. pp. 728–767. Also see the *British Burma Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of British Burma from 1880 to 1884.]

Thayet-myo.—Township in Thayet-myo District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. Lat. 19° 5′ to 19° 29′ 3″ N., and long. 94° 45′ to 95° 16′ 30″ E. Area, 192 square miles. Population (1881) 37,193; revenue (1881–82), £3984.

Thayet-myo.—The chief town and administrative head-quarters of Thayet-myo District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 19° 18′ 43″ N., and long. 95° 15′ 40″ E., on the right bank of the Irawadi, about 11 miles south of the frontier line of the Province. In the rains, the aspect of the place is fresh and green; but during the dry season, when the river has retreated to its dry-weather channel, leaving an extensive sandbank, it presents a dreary appearance. On the annexation of Pegu (1853), Thayet-myo contained only 200 or 300 houses. The total population in 1881 was returned at 16,097, namely, males 9874, and females 6223. Buddhists number 9940; Hindus, 2411; Christians, 2130; Muhammadans, 1614; and 'others,' 2. This rapid increase is mainly due to the fact that Thayet-myo is the frontier military station. The cantonment was founded in 1854, and there is some difference of opinion as to whether the selection was a wise one. Though healthy, Thayet-myo is enclosed on the west and south by ranges of hills shutting out the cool south-westerly breezes, which blow during the hottest period of the year; whilst, on the other hand, the two hills near the old fort of Mye-deh, and the new town of Allan-myo on the opposite side of the Irawadi, are comparatively cool. A sanitarium has been formed on these hills for the troops. From a military point of view, Mye-deh seems a better site than Thayet-myo, as communication with Rangoon is difficult from the latter town.

The usual military force consists of two field batteries of artillery, a wing of a European regiment, and a Native infantry corps, all on the Madras establishment. To the north of the cantonments is a small fort containing the arsenal and commissariat stores, which has lately been improved and strengthened. In 1871, the death-rate amongst the European troops was 11 per thousand; and amongst the Native troops, 6 per thousand. In 1872, it fell to 5·6 and 2·8 per thousand respectively. The most common diseases are paroxysmal fevers, dysentery,

and rheumatism. The water-supply is hard, and to some degree unpalatable. Thayet-myo contains the usual head-quarters buildings.

The name 'Thayet-myo' signifies 'Mango city;' but this is said to be a corruption of 'That-yet-myo' or 'City of Slaughter,' so called, as tradition alleges, from one of its early rulers, who killed his sons in order that they might not rebel against him when they grew to manhood. The town of Thayet-myo is said to have been founded in 1306 A.D. by a son of the last King of Pagan, but it has only of late years risen into importance.

Theog.—A small *thukrái* or lordship in the Simla Hills, Punjab, tributary to the Native State of KEUNTHAL; containing eight *parganás*. The village of Theog is a well-known halting-place, with a *dák* bungalow on the winding mountain road from Simla to Kotgarh, 18 miles east of Simla. There is a small fort, which, according to Thornton, was garrisoned by the Gúrkhas during their occupation of the country. It is situated in lat. 31° 6′ N., and long. 77° 26′ E., at an elevation of 8018 feet above sea-level.

Thi-kwin.—Township in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. Covered for the most part with forest, but also possessing cultivated rice tracts. It comprises 10 revenue circles. Population (1881) 71,621; gross revenue, £20,703. Lat. 16° 35′ to 17° 4′ N., long. 94° 47′ to 95° 15′ E.

Thon-gwa (*Thunkhwa, Thone-gwa*).—British District in the Irawadi Division of Lower Burma, lying between 17° 37′ and 19° 28′ N. lat., and between 95° 53′ and 96° 53′ E. long. Area, 5413 square miles. Population (1881) 284,063 souls. Bounded north by Henzada, east by Rangoon, south by the Bay of Bengal, and west by Bassein District. The head-quarters of the District are at MA-U-BIN TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The whole face of the country is flat, and intersected by a network of muddy tidal creeks, and almost equally muddy streams, all of which communicate, directly or indirectly, with the IRAWADI. This latter river enters Thon-gwa in the extreme north, and traverses the District from north to south, falling into the Bay of Bengal west of the Kyun-taw. The other principal rivers are the To or China Bakir, the PYA-PUN, and the DA-LA or Kyun-tun. Some of the creeks are navigable by river steamers all the year round, and all are more or less fringed with forest. Owing to the continuous deposit of silt, the land along the margins of the watercourses is raised, and the District is thus divided into a congeries of basin-like islands. The coast-line is generally marked by sandy patches or mangrove swamps. Geologically, Thon-gwa is composed of 'older alluvial clay,' which mainly differs from that of the Gangetic basin in being less rich in lime. Under certain conditions of exposure, this formation assumes a lateritic appearance superficially. The chief timber-trees found in the District

are *yin-daik* (Dalbergia cultrata), *pyin-ma* (Lagerstrœmia Flos-Reginæ), and *ka-nyin* (Dipterocarpus alatus). There are no State forest or reserves in Thon-gwa.

History.—The District of Thon-gwa was formed in 1875, and its history previous to that date is identical with that of HENZADA, to which administrative division Thon-gwa originally belonged. During the first Anglo-Burmese war, no resistance was offered to the British except at DONABYU. In 1825 the troops advanced from Rangoon, the land column under the Commander-in-Chief (Sir Archibald Campbell) moving up the valley of the Hlaing, and the water column under Brigadier Cotton making its way to the Irawadi. Sir A. Campbell's march was unopposed; and Tharawadi Min, the native prince, retired as the British advanced. Ban-du-la, who had commanded Burmese armies in Manipur and Arakan, threw himself into Donabyu, which he strongly fortified. After being reinforced, the Commander-in-Chief established himself in Henzada, and a little later set out for Donabyu, where he arrived on the 25th of March. Batteries were at once erected, and on the 1st of April opened fire. Ban-du-la had been killed the day before by the accidental bursting of a shell. The Burmese speedily retreated, and their stockades were captured by our forces.

During the second Anglo-Burmese war, Donabyu was undefended; but after the occupation of Prome, Myat Tun, an ex-*thugyi* of a small circle, succeeded in collecting a body of men, and defied the British, with Donabyu as his head-quarters. Early in January 1853, the town was again attacked, and the enemy were driven out, but our forces were obliged to retire on penetrating into the interior. Captain Loch, C.B., R.N., was despatched against Myat Tun; and in the engagement which ensued he was mortally wounded, being among the first to fall. Captain Fytche at this period was occupied in clearing Bassein District of marauding parties, remnants of the Burmese army. Sir John Cheape, who was commanding in Prome, now descended the river, and proceeded to Donabyu. After a severe encounter, the enemy were dispersed, and their works captured. Myat Tun himself escaped; but from this time the country gradually settled down, and has since remained in undisturbed possession of the British.

Population.—The population of Thon-gwa District was returned in 1872 at 86,166 persons. By 1877 the total had risen to 210,975; and by the last Census of 1881 to 284,063, residing in 2 towns and 976 villages, and in 49,396 houses. Number of unoccupied houses, 5460; average number of persons per village or town, 291; persons per occupied house, 5·75. Area, 5413 square miles. Persons per square mile, 52·48; villages or towns per square mile, 0·18; occupied houses per square mile, 9·1. Classified according to sex,

there were—males 150,131, and females 133,932; proportion of males, 52·8 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 61,826, and girls 57,988; total children, 119,814, or 42·1 per cent.: 15 years and upwards, males 88,305, and females 75,944; total adults, 164,249, or 57·9 per cent. The boat population was returned at 14,805, namely, males 11,056, and females 3749, living in 3132 boats.

The religious division showed the following results:—Buddhists, 274,237, or 96·5 per cent. of the population; Christians, 6894; Muhammadans, 1650; Hindus, 723; Nát-worshippers or non-Buddhist indigenous races, whose sole religion consists in a kind of worship of spirits or 'demons,' supposed to reside in natural objects, 558; and Pársí, 1.

The indigenous and Indian races who inhabited Thon-gwa District, according to the 'language table' of the Census Report of 1881, were—Burmese, 181,763; Karens, 90,009; Talaings, 8575; Hindustánís, 1485; Shans, 789; Chinese, 529; Telugus, 217; Karennís, 193; Bengálís, 187; Tamils, 162; and 'others,' 111

The Christians according to race were—Europeans and Americans, 18; Eurasians, 43; and Natives, 6833. According to sect there were—Baptists, 5594; Roman Catholics, 1125; members of the Church of England, 167; and 'others,' 8. Of the native converts, 5585 were Baptists, 1103 Roman Catholics, 140 members of the Church of England, and 5 'others.'

The largest town in Thon-gwa District is YAUNG-DUN, with 12,673 inhabitants in 1881; MA-U-BIN, the head-quarters station, is little more than a village; DONABYU, on the right bank of the Irawadi, population 3273; PAN-TA-NAW, population 6174.

Of the 978 towns and villages in Thon-gwa District, 450 contained in 1881 less than two hundred inhabitants; 408 between two and five hundred; 100 between five hundred and one thousand; 13 between one and two thousand; 4 between two and three thousand; 1 between three and five thousand; 1 between five and ten thousand; and 1 between fifteen and twenty thousand.

The Census of 1881 distributed the population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions—males 2233, and females 202; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers—males 184, and females 104; (3) commercial class, including all bankers, merchants, carriers, etc.—males 11,452, and females 5401; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners—males 53,288, and females 35,378; (5) industrial class, including manufacturers and artisans—males 15,529, and females 13,498; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, children, and persons of unspecified occupation—males 67,445, and females 79,349.

Agriculture. — Agriculture supported (1881) 170,843 persons, or 60·14 per cent. of the population. In 1881, of the total area of the District (5413 square miles), 356 square miles were cultivated, of which 4 square miles were non-revenue-paying; the area cultivable, but not cultivated, was 2165 square miles; uncultivable, 2892 square miles. The total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses paid on land, in the same year, was £62,308; the average incidence of assessment, including local rates and cesses, was 5s. 6½d. per acre of cultivated land paying revenue. The average area of cultivated land per agricultural labourer was 1·33 acres.

The principal crops grown in Thon-gwa District are rice, plantains, chillies, and sugar-cane. In 1883–84, the total area actually cultivated was 296,755 acres. Rice occupied 266,901 acres; oil-seeds, 285 acres; sugar-cane, 349 acres; *dhani*, 453 acres; plantains, 1050 acres; betel-leaf, 99 acres; mixed fruit-trees, 20,507 acres; chillies, 1730 acres; and miscellaneous, 5401 acres. This is the only District in Lower Burma where no *taungya* or hill-garden cultivation is carried on. The soil is much less fertile than in the neighbouring Districts of Bassein, Henzada, and Hanthawadi. Average rent per acre of land suited for—rice, 3s. 9d.; oil-seeds, 4s. 3¾d.; sugar-cane, 4s. 6d.; tobacco, 4s. 3d.; *dhani*, 4s. 9d.; mixed fruit-trees, 4s. 3¾d.; mixed products, 5s. 0½d.; betel-leaf, 4s. 3¾d.; plantains, 4s. 3d.; chillies, 4s. 3¾d.; onions, 4s. 6d. The average produce of land per acre was —rice, 1200 lbs.; oil-seeds, 1120 lbs.; sugar, 2800 lbs.; tobacco, 1050 lbs.; mixed products, 1050 lbs.; onions, 3500 lbs.; betel-leaf, 1750 lbs. The agricultural live stock consisted of—cows and bullocks, 22,004; buffaloes, 32,044; horses and ponies, 107; sheep and goats, 884; pigs, 7696: dead stock—ploughs, 14,745; carts, 9249; and boats, 9500. The price of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. was—rice, 8s. 6d.; salt, 2s. 7½d.; tobacco, 16s.; oil-seeds, 6s. 4½d.; chillies, 12s. 6d.; onions, 6s. 10½d. A plough bullock cost £7, 10s.; a buffalo, £9. The daily wages of skilled labour ranged from 1s. to 2s.; of unskilled workmen, from 1s. to 1s. 6d.

Administration. — The total revenue realized in Thon-gwa in 1875–76, the first year after its erection into a separate adminstration, was £102,430. In 1883–84 the revenue had risen to £194,005. The District of Thon-gwa consists of the 3 Sub-divisions of Ma-u-bin, Pan-ta-naw, and Yaung-dun, each of which is again divided into 2 townships, viz. Thon-gwa and Pya-pun, Yaung-dun and Donabyu, Pan-ta-naw and Shwe-laung. For the settlement of civil disputes and for revenue purposes there are 10 courts. Ten officers share the administration of criminal justice. Average distance of villages from nearest court, 15 miles. The total strength of the regular police in 1883–84 consisted of 337 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 842

persons of the population and to every 16·06 square miles of the area. The total cost was £8686, equal to £1, 12s. 1d. per square mile of area and 7¼d. per head of population. The total number of schools, public, private, and indigenous, in 1883–84 was 432, attended by 11,338 pupils. The Census of 1881 returned 19,915 males and 4556 females as under instruction, besides 65,964 males and 2271 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—In 1883 the rainfall was 94·64 inches. The vital statistics for 1883 show a total of 3480 recorded deaths. The dispensaries in the towns of Ma-u-bin, Yaung-dun, and Pan-ta-naw relieved 297 in-door and 9293 out-door patients; of these 1215 were fever cases. [For further information regarding Thon-gwa District, see the *British Burma Gazetteer*, compiled by authority (Rangoon Government Press, 1879), vol. ii. pp. 787–793. Also see the *British Burma Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports for British Burma from 1880 to 1884.]

Thon-gwa.—Township in Thon-gwa District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. The country is generally low, and well cultivated. Chief product, rice. The township comprises 4 revenue circles. Population (1881) 38,807; gross revenue, £19,727.

Thoonkhwa.—District and township in Lower Burma.—*See* THON-GWA.

Thouk-re-gat (or *Thauk-ye-gat*).—River in Taung-ngu District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma.—*See* THAUK-YE-GAT.

Thoung-gyeng (or *Thaung-yin*).—River in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma.—*See* THAUNG-YIN.

Thovalai.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 121 square miles, containing 158 *karas* or collections of villages. Population (1881) 30,260, namely, males 14,830, and females 15,430, occupying 8588 houses. Density of population, 250 persons per square mile. Hindus number 26,342; Christians, 2615; and Muhammadans, 1303. Of the Christians, 1569 were Protestants, and 1046 Roman Catholics.

Thul.—*Táluk* of the Upper Sind Frontier District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 821 square miles. Population (1872) 34,807; (1881) 43,025, namely, males 23,240, and females 19,785; occupying 7694 houses in 58 villages. Muhammadans number 38,637; Hindus, 2938; Sikhs, 1249; and non-Hindu aborigines, 201. In 1882–83, the area assessed for land revenue was 70,533 acres; and the area under actual cultivation, 68,486 acres. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 50 men. Revenue, £13,081.

Thul.—Head-quarters town of Thul *táluk*, Upper Sind Frontier District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated 23 miles from Jacobábád. Lat.

28° 15′ N., long. 68° 49′ E. Station of a *múkhtiárkár* and *tappadár*. Police station, jail, lock-up, vernacular school, and cattle pound. Population (1872) 1043, namely, 636 Hindus and 407 Muhammadans. Not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881.

Thulendi.—Town in Digbijaiganj *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated 18 miles south of Bhilwal, 18 miles south-west of Haidargarh, and 32 miles south-east of Lucknow. Population (1881) 2605, namely, Hindus 1682, and Muhammadans 923. Founded by Thúla, a Bhar chief, more than 800 years ago. Situated on an elevated plain, and surrounded by groves. Climate, healthy; soil, clay. The Jaunpur king, Sultán Ibráhím, in the 15th century, built a mud-walled fort, which was made the residence of the revenue officer; but Rájá Niwáz Singh, a Bráhman, transferred the seat of government to Bachhráwán. Of architectural works there are—the fort built by Ibráhím, two masonry mosques, the palace of Rájá Niwáz Singh, and two mud-built tanks. Government vernacular school; five Hindu temples; martyr's tomb; bi-weekly market; annual fair, attended by 4000 people.

Thummapatty.—Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency. —*See* THAMMAPATTI.

Thun-khwa (*Thon-gwa*).—District and township in Lower Burma. —*See* THON-GWA.

Tiágar (*Tiyágar Drug*).—Village and old fort in South Arcot District, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 44′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 7′ 15″ E., 30 miles south of Trinomalai. Population (1871) 419, inhabiting 54 houses. Like the fortress of Trinomalai, Tiágar formed one of the bulwarks of the District against invasion from above the Ghâts, and was the scene of much hard fighting in the Karnátik wars. Between 1757 and 1780 it was regularly invested five times, and blockaded once; and although never carried by assault, it repeatedly changed hands between English, French, and Mysoreans. Commanding the pass from Atúr in Salem, it was an object to Haidar Alí, and its cession was included in the terms of his treaty with the French in 1760. It formed the rendezvous of his troops before joining Lally at Pondicherri; and here they again collected when retreating before Coote. In 1790, Captain Flint, the defender of Wandiwash, beat off Tipú in two assaults on the town. The roads from Arcot to Trichinopoli and from Salem to Cuddalore intersect at Tiágar.

Tigar.—*Táluk* of Mehar Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 301 square miles. Population (1881) 31,965, namely, males 17,002, and females 14,963, occupying 4185 houses in 48 villages. Muhammadans number 27,369; Sikhs, 3147; Hindus, 1405; Christians, 31; and non-Hindu aborigines, 13. In 1882–83 the area assessed for land revenue was 34,510 acres; under actual cultivation, 32,894 acres. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal

courts; police circles (*thánás*), 4; regular police, 24 men. Revenue, £11,398.

Tigariá.—Native State of Orissa, Bengal, lying between 20° 25′ and 20° 32′ 20″ N. lat., and between 85° 27′ 45″ and 85° 35′ 30″ E. long. Area, 46 square miles. Population (1881) 19,850. Bounded on the north by Dhenkánal, on the east by Athgarh State, on the south by the Mahánadi river, and on the west by Barambá State.

Although the smallest in size, Tigariá is, with the single exception of Bánki, the most densely peopled of the Orissa Tributary States, being well cultivated, except among the hills and jungles at its northern end. It produces coarse rice and the usual other grains, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, tobacco, cotton, etc., for the transport of which the Mahánadi affords ample facilities throughout its whole southern section. Bi-weekly markets are held at two villages. The population of 19,850 persons inhabits 95 villages and 3659 houses. Hindus number 19,575, or 98·5 per cent. of the population; and Muhammadans 275, or 1·5 per cent. Proportion of males in total population, 49·6 per cent.; density of population, 431 persons per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 2·07; persons per village, 209; houses per square mile, 79; persons per house, 5·4. The State contains only one village with a population of from 2000 to 3000. Tigariá, the residence of the Rájá, situated in lat. 20° 28′ 15″ N., and long. 84° 33′ 31″ E.

This little principality was founded about 400 years ago by Sur Tung Singh, a pilgrim to Purí from Northern India, who halted here on his way back, drove out the aborigines, seized the country, and founded the present family. It is said to derive its name from the fact of its having originally consisted of three divisions defended by forts (*trigarh*, or in Uriyá, *gara*). Extensive portions of Tigariá were annexed by neighbouring chiefs in the time of Maráthá rule. The revenue of the Rájá is estimated at £800; tribute, £88. The militia consists of 393, and the police force of 77 men. Tigariá State contains 12 schools.

Tijára.—Town and *tahsíl* in the Native State of Alwar, in Rájputána. The town of Tijára lies 30 miles north-east of Alwar city; situated in lat. 27° 55′ 50″ N., and long. 76° 50′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 7723, namely, Hindus 4799, and Muhammadans 2924. A metalled road connects the town with Khairtal, a station on the Rájputána-Málwá Railway. The proprietors, according to Major Powlett (*Gazetteer of Alwar*, London, 1878, p. 129), are Meos, Mállís, and Khánzádas. It has a municipal committee, dispensary, school, and large *bázár*. Next to agriculture, the principal industries are weaving and papermaking. Tijára was the old capital of MEWAT, and a place of importance up to recent times. It was founded by Tej Pal, and was subsequently the head-quarters of the powerful Khánzádas of

Mewát. Throughout the period of Musalmán rule in India, the Tijára Hills were the strongholds of the turbulent Mewátis; and the town itself frequently changed hands, being occupied successively by Khánzádas, Mughals, Játs, Patháns, Maráthás, Meos, and Narukas, a branch of the Kachhwaha Rájputs. Area of the *tahsíl*, 257 square miles; revenue, £15,900.

Tikamgarh.—Fort in Orchhá State, Bundelkhand, Central India.—*See* TEHRI.

Tikári.—Town and municipality in the head-quarters Sub-division of Gayá District, Bengal; situated on the Múrhar river, about 15 miles north-west of Gayá city. Lat. 24° 56′ 38″ N., long. 84° 52′ 53″ E. Population (1881) 12,187, namely, males 5848, and females 6339. Hindus number 9312, and Muhammadans 2875. Municipal income (1883–84), £207; average incidence of taxation, 4d. per head. Local police force, 38 men. The chief interest of this town centres round the fort of the Rájás of Tikári, who rose into importance after the dismemberment of the Mughal Government in the 18th century. The late chief received the title of Mahárájá in 1873. The rental of the estate is estimated at £46,826; and the Government revenue is £19,250. [For details regarding the Tikári family, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xii. pp. 51–53.]

Tikota.—Town in Kurundwár State, Southern Maráthá Country, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 15′ 40″ N., long. 75° 33′ 50″ E.; situated about 12 miles west of Bijápur. Population (1881) 5897, namely, Hindus, 5053; Muhammadans, 798; and Jains, 46. Under the Muhammadans this place appears to have been of some importance, as it contains the remains of a large *sarái* (native inn) said to have been built by a former minister of the Bijápur Government.

Tikrí.—Town in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 14′ N., and long. 77° 23′ E., 27 miles north-west of Meerut city. Population (1881) 6274, namely, Hindus, 4956; Muhammadans, 753; and Jains, 565. Flourishing agricultural community of Játs.

Tikrí.—Village in Soráon *tahsíl*, Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 34′ N., and long. 81° 59′ 28″ E., 4 miles south-south-east of Soráon town, and 8½ miles north of Allahábád city. Population (1881) 2224. Noted for its temple to Mahádeo, in whose honour a religious fair is held every February. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Tilain.—Hill range in Cachar District, Assam, running north from the Lushái Hills on the southern frontier. The height varies from 100 to 500 feet. These hills are crossed by the Silchár and Sylhet road, 4 miles west of Silchár, and might everywhere be rendered accessible for wheeled traffic. The name Tilain is said by some to be a corruption

of Tin Shaind, or three gorges, which exist close to one another in these hills.

Tilhar.—North-western *tahsíl* of Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a portion of the Rohilkhand plain. Area, 416 square miles, of which 284 square miles are cultivated. Population (1881) 213,549, namely, males 115,647, and females 97,902. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 185,914; Muhammadans, 27,596; and 'others,' 39. Of 549 towns and villages, 448 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 71 between five hundred and a thousand; 25 between one and two thousand; 2 between two and five thousand; 2 between five and ten thousand; and 1 between fifteen and twenty thousand. Government land revenue, £33,030, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £36,973. Rental paid by cultivators, £6139. In 1885, Tilhar *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; regular police force, 64 men.

Tilhar.—Town and municipality in Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 27° 37′ 50″ N., and long. 79° 46′ 31″ E., 12 miles west of Sháhjahánpur city, on the metalled road from Sháhjahánpur to Bareilly, and a station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Population in 1881 (including a number of neighbouring villages, forming a single municipality), 15,351, namely, males 7975, and females 17376. Hindus number 7787; Muhammadans, 7555; Jains, 6; and 'others,' 3. Number of houses, 2687. Municipal income (1883–84), £944, of which £633 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 9¾d. per head. The town is surrounded by a battlemented brick wall now in ruins, with gateways on the west and east. A new market-place capable of accommodating a large trade was constructed in 1881 by the municipality; but comparatively little business is carried on, except in unrefined sugar (*gúr*), which is largely made in the neighbourhood and exported. Many improvements have lately been carried out in the town. During the Mutiny the leading Muhammadans joined the rebels. Their estates were confiscated, the leaders transported, and the town now contains but few well-to-do Musalmán residents.

Tiljúgá.—River of North Behar; rises in the hills of the sub-Tarái of Nepál, and flows into Bhágalpur, separating that District on the west from Nepál and Tirhút. At the village of Tilkeswar it bends south-east across the great Monghyr *parganá* of Pharkiyá; and again entering Bhágalpur near Balhar with a due easterly course, falls into the Kusi at Saurá Gadi. At Rawál, 15 miles from Nepál, it sends off a number of channels, which irrigate and drain the country through which they pass. Its chief affluents are the Bálan, Dimrá, Bati, and Katna, the latter river being formed by the united streams of the Talabá,

Parwán, Dhúsan, and Loran. The Tiljúgá is navigable by boats of 70 tons burthen as far as Tilkeswar, and beyond for eight months of the year by boats of a quarter of that tonnage up to Dighíá, within 10 miles of the Nepál frontier. This river constitutes the main water communication in the north-west of Bhágalpur.

Tilothu.—Village and police outpost in Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated 5 miles east of the gorge by which the Tutráhí, a branch of the Kudra river, leaves the hills. This spot is sacred to the goddess Totala. The gorge itself is half a mile long, terminating in a sheer horse-shoe precipice from 180 to 250 feet high, down which the river falls. The rock at first recedes at an angle of 100° for about one-third of the height; but above that it overhangs, forming a re-entering angle. The object of interest is an image, bearing the date Samvat 1389, or 1332 A.D., which is said to have been placed here by the Cherus about eighteen centuries ago. It represents a many-armed female killing a man springing from the neck of a buffalo. A fair is held here every year on the last day of *Kártik*, which is attended by about 100,000 persons, many from distant places.

Timarní.—Large village in Harda *tahsíl*, Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 4176, namely, Hindus, 3821; Muhammadans, 304; Jains, 50; and Christian, 1.

Timeri.—Town in Arcot *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 12° 49′ 45″ N., and long. 79° 21′ 20″ E., 6 miles south-west of Arcot. Population (1871) 3678; (1881) 3663, namely, Hindus, 3332; Muhammadans, 328; Christian, 1; and 'others,' 2; occupying 349 houses. Timeri was captured by Clive in 1751, after the successful defence of Arcot, and was held by the British till 1758, when it surrendered to D'Estainge. Major Munro recovered the town in 1760.

Tingrikotta.—Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TENKARAIKOTTA.

Tinnevelli (*Tirunelvéli*).—British District in the Presidency of Madras, lying between 8° 9′ and 9° 56′ N. lat., and between 77° 16′ and 78° 27′ E. long. Area, 5381 square miles. Population (1881) 1,699,747 souls. Tinnevelli occupies the extreme south-eastern corner of the Indian peninsula. Madura District bounds it on the north and north-east; on the south-east and south the Gulf of Manaár, and on the west the Southern Ghâts, form natural boundaries. The Ghâts divide it from the Native State of Travancore. The coast-line extends from Vembár nearly to Cape Comorin (the most southern point of India), 95 miles. The greatest length of the District is, from north to south, 122 miles; and the greatest breadth, from east to west, 74 miles.

Physical Aspects.—Roughly speaking, Tinnevélli is a large plain (of an average elevation of 200 feet) sloping to the east, as may be inferred

from the general direction of its rivers. It is, in fact, made up of their drainage basins. Along the western boundary, the mountains rise from the plain to a height of above 4000 feet; but they send out no spurs into the District, nor are there any isolated hills, and the face of the country is but slightly undulating. The total area of the mountains and elevated tracts is 626 square miles, of which the Southern Ghâts occupy 582 square miles. The elevation of the land at the foot of the Ghâts is about 800 feet. The area of the forests is 286 square miles; the greater portion of which is fully stocked with evergreen forests, and has been specially reserved. There are 34 rivers, all of which run their entire course within the District. The chief are—(1) The Támbraparní (length 80 miles), which rises in the Southern Ghâts, and as it leaves the hills forms a beautiful waterfall at Pápanásam. Its course is on the whole east-south-east, and its name comes from the red or copper colour which it gets from the soil through which it passes. Its principal tributary is the Chittár or Chitranadi ('little river'), which rises above Kuttálam (Courtallum). The Támbraparní passes between the towns of Tinnevelli and Palamcotta, which are two and a half miles apart. (2) The Vaipár. Sátúr is the chief town on its banks.

In the north, the scenery is unattractive. There are few trees, and the soil is nearly all what is called black cotton-soil. To the south, red sandy soil prevails, in which little save the palmyra palm will grow. In fact, Tinnevelli is the palmyra district, as it is the district of the Shánáns, who live by the palmyra. But along the banks of the rivers, rice-fields and a variety of trees and crops render the country more pleasing. The coast has but few villages, and is low and level. There are many shoals near the shore, and rocks and reefs in the north-east. Along the coast are salt marshes, divided by sand dunes from the sea, with which they have no communication. In the rainy season, these marshes spread over a wide expanse of country. After heavy rain in 1810, four of them became united, and much damage was done to cultivation by the stagnant salt water. The District has not yet been surveyed geologically. The hills which divide it from Travancore are chiefly granite and gneiss, and along the coast stretches the broad belt of alluvium common to the whole east coast of India. 'There are several veins of calc-spar crossing the District from west to east, and the beds of all the rivers are more or less encrusted with a deposit of lime. In the black cotton-soil, nodular limestone is very abundant, and below it a bed of gneiss in a partially disintegrated state occurs.'—(Pharoah's *Gazetteer of Southern India*, 1855, p. 436.)

History.—Tinnevelli as a District has no independent history. Its annals are mixed up with those of Madura and Travancore, and there is no great family or town about which its story clusters. Nevertheless

it is interesting as the seat of the earliest Dravidian civilisation; and its coast and pearl-fishery were well known to the Greeks. 'According to Tamil tradition, Chéra, Chóla, and Pándiya were three royal brothers, who at first lived and ruled in common at Kolkai, on the Támbraparní. Eventually a separation took place; Pándiya remained at home; Chéra and Chóla founded kingdoms of their own in the north and west.'—(Caldwell's *Dravidian Grammar*, 1875, Int. p. 18.) 'The earliest Dravidian civilisation was that of the Tamilians of the Pándya kingdom, and the first place where they erected a city and established a State was Kolkai, on the Támbraparní river. This civilisation was probably indigenous in its origin, but it seems to have been indebted for its rapid development to the influence of a succession of small colonies of Aryans, chiefly Bráhmans from Upper India. . . . The leader of the first or most influential Bráhmanical colony is said to have been (the famous *rishi*) Agastya. . . . He is believed to be still alive, and to reside somewhere on the fine conical mountain commonly called "Agastya's Hill," from which the Támbraparní takes its rise. . . . The age of Agastya was certainly prior to the era of the Greek traders.' — (Caldwell's *Dravidian Grammar*, Int. p. 118.) Agastya is, according to the Bráhmans, the founder of the Tamil language. The first capital of the Pándyas was Kolkai, above named; the second, and more celebrated, was Madura. Kolkai is the Κόλχοι ἐμπόριον of Ptolemy (130 A.D.), and of the author of the Periplus (80 A.D.), both of whom speak of it as the head-quarters of the pearl-fishery, and belonging to the Pándyan king. 'This place is now about 3 miles inland. . . . After the sea had retired from Kolkai, in consequence of the silt deposited by the river, a new emporium arose on the coast, which was much celebrated during the Middle Ages. This was Káyal, . . . the Cael of Marco Polo. . . . Káyal in turn became too far from the sea for the convenience of trade, and Tuticorin (Túttrukudi) was raised instead, by the Portuguese, from the position of a fishing village to that of the most important port on the Southern Coromandel coast.' —(Caldwell's *Dravidian Grammar*, Int. p. 102.) A flourishing direct trade was carried on from Káyal with China and Arabia, by Arabs and others. 'When the Portuguese arrived at Cael, . . . they found the King of Zuilon . . . residing there. The prince referred to would now be called King of Travancore; and it is clear, from inscriptions, . . . that the kingdom of Travancore somtimes included a portion of Tinnevelli.'—(Caldwell's *Dravidian Grammar*, Int. p. 11.)

The Pándyans remained in possession of the District from the earliest historical times till about the year 1064 A.D., when they were conquered by Rajendra Chola, who assumed the name of Sundara Pándyan. Little further is known till the Muhammadan inroad, 1310 or 1311, which was followed by a Pándyan restoration. Virtually

there would seem to have ensued an almost complete state of anarchy for 250 years; Muhammadan adventurers, Kánarese or Telugu Náyaks, and the Pándyan legitimists contending for the sovereignty. About the year 1559, the Náyaks, who were generals of the Vijayanagar State, finally established the strong Náyak dynasty of Madura, which, after the fall of the Vijayanagar kingdom in 1565, became practically an independent family of sovereigns, acknowledging however the expatriated princes of the Vijayanagar family as their chiefs. The power of the Portuguese along the coast lasted till the 17th century, when they were expelled by the Dutch, who set up a factory at Tuticorin. On the decay of the Pándyan kingdom, Tinnevelli fell under the Náyakkans of Madura. About 1744, Tinnevelli became nominally subject to the Nawáb of Arcot; but it was really divided between a number of independent chiefs (*pálaiyakkárar*, corruptly *poligar* or *pálegár*), who had forts in the hills or dense jungle with which the District was covered. Some collectors of revenue contrived to elude the immediate control of the Muhammadans, and gradually established themselves as independent. The other *pálegárs* were the representatives of the feudal chieftains of the old Madura kingdom. All were made to pay tribute according to the power of the Nawáb's government to enforce it. All exercised criminal and civil jurisdiction, and were continually at war with their neighbours, or in revolt against the State. Tinnevelli used to be farmed out by the Nawáb at a low rent; but even this generally ruined the renters, partly because of the resistance of the *pálegárs*, and partly because of the mismanagement and tyranny of the renters themselves. The *pálegárs* maintained about 30,000 peons, a rabble of ill-armed and ill-drilled soldiers, which secured their independence.

Up to 1781, the history of the District is a confused tale of anarchy and bloodshed. In 1756, Muhammad Yusaf Khán was sent to settle the two countries of Madura and Tinnevelli. He gave Tinnevelli in farm to a Hindu at £110,000 a year, and invested him with civil and criminal jurisdiction. Muhammad Yusaf Khán was recalled from the south in 1758, and the country immediately relapsed into its previous state of anarchy. He returned in 1759, and undertook himself the farm of Madura and Tinnevelli. He ruled till 1763; but as he could not or would not pay his tribute, an army was sent against him, and he was captured at Madura, and hanged. In 1781, the Nawáb of Arcot assigned the revenues of the District to the East India Company, whose officers then undertook the internal administration of affairs. In 1782, the strongholds of Chokkanapatti and Pánjálamkurichchi were reduced by Colonel Fullarton, who also subdued some refractory *pálegárs*. However, to the end of the century, some of the *pálegárs* exercised civil and criminal jurisdiction in their territories. They

rebelled in 1799, when the war with Tipú had withdrawn our troops from the south. They were therefore disarmed, and their forts were destroyed; but another rising took place in 1801. This was put down; and in the same year the whole Karnátik, including Tinnevelli, was finally ceded to the English. Since that time there has been no historical event worth notice.

Population.—According to the Census of 1871, the population numbered 1,693,959 persons. The Census of 1881 returned the population at 1,699,747, occupying 366,597 houses in 39 towns and 1458 villages. Increase of population in ten years, 5788, or 0·34 per cent. Tinnevelli felt the pressure of the famine of 1876–78 seriously, and in some of its *táluks* the distress was acute. The effect on the population is to represent it as practically stationary between 1871 and 1881. This was certainly not the case, for until 1876 Tinnevelli was a prosperous District. In 1881, six *táluks* out of nine in the District show a decrease, as compared with 1871; and the total increase is confined to females, and is probably due entirely to better enumeration. On the other hand, some of the *táluk* decreases are caused by alteration of area. In Ottipidaram, Srivilliputur, and Satur, the famine pressure was severe; and the loss in the last-named *táluk* would have appeared greater but for an accession of territory subsequent to the famine. The loss in Tinnevelli and Sankaranai-narkoil *táluks* and the large gain in Tenkarai and Tenkásí *táluks* are only apparent, being due to rectification of boundaries.

The number of unoccupied houses was 66,749; average number of persons per village or town, 1135; persons per occupied house, 4·7. The total area, taken at 5381 square miles, gave the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 315; villages or towns per square mile, 0·278; occupied houses per square mile, 68. Classified according to sex, there were—males 825,887, and females 873,860; the proportion of the sexes being 486 males to 514 females in every 1000. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 328,762, and girls 325,572; total children, 654,334, or 38·5 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 497,042, and females 548,195; total adults, 1,045,237, or 61·5 per cent. Of 83 males and 93 females, the age was not stated.

The religious division showed the following results:—Hindus, 1,468,977, or 86·42 per cent. of the population; Christians, 140,946, or 8·29 per cent.; Muhammadans, 89,767, or 5·28 per cent.; and 'others,' 57. Since 1871 the Hindus have lost 2·5 per cent.; the Christians have gained 37·41 per cent.; and the Muhammadans, 5·92 per cent. The religious division is more significant in Tinnevelli than in any other District. The work of conversion to Christianity has been on a scale sufficient to make a definite mark.

Distributed according to caste, the Hindus include — Vanniyans (labourers and cultivators), 362,325, or 24·67 per cent.; Vellálars (agriculturists), 331,394, or 22·56 per cent.; Shánáns (toddy-drawers), 232,457, or 15·83 per cent.; Pariahs (outcastes proper), 123,925, or 8·43 per cent.; Idaiyars (shepherds), 90,112, or 6·13 per cent.; Kammálars (artisans), 67,938, or 4·63 per cent.; Bráhmans (priestly caste), 59,102, or 4·03 per cent.; Kaikalars (weavers), 43,758, or 2·98 per cent.; Sátánís (mixed and depressed castes), 24,397, or 1·66 per cent.; Ambattans (barbers), 20,789, or 1·42 per cent.; Vannans (washermen), 20,654, or 1·41 per cent.; Shettis (traders), 15,197, or 1·03 per cent.; Kushavans (potters), 10,724, or 0·74 per cent.; Kshattriyas (warrior caste), 5814, or 0·39 per cent.; Shembadavans (fishermen), 5573, or 0·38 per cent.; Kanakkans (writers), 1008, or 0·06 per cent.; and other outcastes and castes that follow no specified occupation, 27,018.

The most interesting castes are the Shánáns and the Paravars. The latter are all Catholics. The Shánáns are a low caste, living solely by the cultivation of the palmyra palm. They claim (perhaps with justice) to be the original lords of the soil. Christian missions have been especially successful among them. Devil-worship is common, especially among the Shánáns. Tinnevelli has been less influenced by pure Hinduism than other Districts. Some Bráhmans have even taken up the local devil-worship. At Srívaikuntham is a curious sub-division of Vellálar caste, the Kottai Vellálars ('Fort Vellálars'), who live in a mud inclosure or fort so called, out of which their women are not allowed to go. The three most celebrated Hindu shrines are at Tiruchendúr on the sea-coast, at Pápanásam on the Támbraparní, and at Kuttálam (Courtallum) on its tributary the Chittár. At both the latter places there are beautiful waterfalls at the foot of the hills. Kuttálam is also known as Tenkási, *i.e.* the Southern Benares. The scenery is very picturesque.

The Christians as sub-divided into sects were—Protestants (undistinguished by sect), 59,486; Roman Catholics, 57,129; members of the Church of England, 21,684; Baptists, 121; Congregationalists, 92; Lutherans, 66; Presbyterians, 53; Episcopalians, 6; and of 2309 the sect was not stated. According to race—Europeans and Americans, 125; Eurasians, 566; Natives, 138,716; and of 1539 the race was not stated. Of the native converts, 79,624 were members of the different Protestant sects; 56,911 Roman Catholics; and of 2181 the sect was not stated. The history of the Catholic Church in Tinnevelli practically dates from the 16th century, though there are some traces of more ancient missions. It was on the Tinnevelli coast that St. Francis Xavier, in 1542, after a short stay at Goa, began his work as apostle of the Indies. The Paravars, then as now a fishing caste, had received Portuguese protection against the Muhammadans, who oppressed them; and many of them had become Christians. St. Xavier completed

the work, and since then all the Paravars have called themselves his children. They are spread along the coasts of Tinnevelli, Madura, and Ceylon. Tuticorin is their chief town. We read of the martyrdom, in 1549, at Punnaikáyál, of Father Antonio Criminale, the proto-martyr of the Society of Jesus. Many of the letters of St. Francis Xavier were written from Tuticorin and other places in the neighbourhood. For some time the missions were confined to the coast. The famous Jesuit mission of Madura was founded by Father Robert de Nobilis (an Italian) in 1607, and soon extended itself into Tinnevelli. The letters of the Jesuits from 1609 to 1780 are almost the only materials for the history of Madura and Tinnevelli during much of this time. John de Britto (martyred in Madura, 1693) laboured at times in Tinnevelli, and Father Beschi (the great Tamil scholar, died about 1746) lived some time at Kayatár.

Christianity prospered in Tinnevelli, in spite of all difficulties; but its progress was arrested by events in Europe. In 1759, Portugal suppressed the Society of Jesus in its dominions, and imprisoned all its members. The Jesuits in the Eastern missions were on various pretexts brought within reach of Portuguese officials. They were summoned to Goa and other places, and there seized and imprisoned. Those who remained in the missions were deprived of all aid, communication with Europe was rendered difficult, and the supply of priests cut off. The general suppression of the Society of Jesus in 1773, the French Revolution in 1789, and other European troubles, still further injured the missions. Till 1837, Tinnevelli had only a few priests from Goa, and in the absence of priests the number of Catholics declined. In 1837, Tinnevelli with other Districts was entrusted to French Jesuits, and since that time the mission has made steady progress. In 1851, there were 23,351 Catholics; in 1871, 52,780; and in 1881, 57,129. Everything had to be created,—churches, schools, etc. At first, owing to their small number, the priests were overworked; bad food, exposure, and other sufferings due to extreme poverty, caused the death of many, especially from cholera. In 1846, the Vicariate-Apostolic of Madura (of which Tinnevelli forms a part) was erected. At present (1884) there are in the District 18 priests of the Society of Jesus (11 Europeans and 7 natives), under the jurisdiction of the Vicar-Apostolic, and 2 secular priests, under the jurisdiction of the Archbishop of Goa. There are about 59 churches and 96 chapels, 48 boys' schools and 6 girls' schools, with 2070 boys and 412 girls. There are three native nunneries, one at Tuticorin, one at Palamcotta, and one at Adeikalapuram. Two boys' and one female orphanage.

Protestant missionaries first visited Tinnevelli towards the end of the last century. The Lutheran Schwartz seems to have been here in 1770, and a few years later one of his converts built a small church at

Palamcotta. In 1785 he had 100 converts at that place. The District was visited periodically from Tanjore (200 miles) by native Lutheran ministers. In 1792 there were several distinct congregations. Jænicke worked with success from 1792 to 1800, and after him Gericke baptized many persons. The East India Company's chaplain at Palamcotta (J. Hough) in 1816 infused new life into the mission. At that time it numbered 3000 souls, and for ten years it had not been visited by a European missionary. Two Lutheran ministers (Rhenius, a man of great ability, and Schmid) were sent out by the Church Missionary Society in 1820; and under them converts increased to 11,186 in 1835. In 1826, the missions in Tinnevelli of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge were handed over to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel; and since that time the latter Society and the Church Missionary Society have divided the District between them. At least two-thirds of their converts are Shánáns. In 1851, the number of Protestants was 35,552; in 1871, it was 49,796; and in 1881, 81,508. In 1877, two missionaries, one from each Society, were consecrated Bishop's Assistants to the Bishop of Madras: Dr. E. Sargent, of the Church Missionary Society and Dr. R. Caldwell, the distinguished Orientalist. During the late (1876–78) famine the number of converts greatly increased. The following are the latest (1884) statistics of the two Societies:—European and Eurasian missionaries, 5; native clergymen, 66; schoolmasters and other paid agents, 691; schools, 481; school-boys, 11,464; school-girls, 2815, according to the Census of 1881. The small number of Europeans employed is very noticeable. The progress as regards self-ruling and self-supporting churches becomes more and more encouraging year by year. Some of the native clergymen are already maintained by their flocks, and a system of church councils has been organized.

The Muhammadan population, by race as distinguished from descendants of converts, consisted of—Arabs, 566; Pathán, 311; Shaikhs, 209; Sayyids, 74; Mughals, 17; Labbays, 11; Máppillás, 3; and 'others,' 88,576. According to sect, the Muhammadans were returned—Sunnís, 86,835; Shiás, 1130; Wáhábís, 48; and 'others,' 1754. The greater part of the Muhammadans in Tinnevelli are descended from the ancient Arab traders and their converts. They are found along the whole coast of the Tamil country, and are called by the English 'Labbays,' but call themselves Sónagars. Here, as elsewhere, they are chiefly employed in fishing and seafaring pursuits.

Madura and Tinnevelli are the Districts which supply Ceylon with labourers for the coffee plantations, etc. Ordinarily, three-fourths of these return to India after a year or two. The rest remain permanently in Ceylon. During the famine of 1877, a very large number went to Ceylon, and the demand for labour fell off. Hence in 1878–79 there

were 40,435 immigrants, and only 34,083 emigrants from Tinnevelli. And in 1881 the figures were—immigrants 19,816, and emigrants 33,137.

Tinnevelli has a larger number (39) of towns with over 5000 inhabitants than any other Madras District save Malabar; and the tendency to form large towns is a peculiarity of the District. The most important are TINNEVELLI, PALAMCOTTA, TUTICORIN, and SRIVILLIPATUR. The District contains many ancient and magnificent buildings,—*e.g.* the temple in Tinnevelli town (which see), a rock temple at Kalugu-malai (with some of the oldest Tamil inscriptions known), also several Jain images (a colossal one now at Tuticorin), etc. But the most interesting antiquities are the large sepulchral earthen urns of prehistoric races, which have been found at several places. These contain bones, pottery of all sorts, beads and bronze ornaments, iron weapons and implements, etc. The skulls and bones are often found in almost perfect preservation, placed in the urn in a sitting or bent posture, or, when the urns are small, still more forcibly fitted to its size. The District, as a seat of Dravidian civilisation, possesses more antiquarian interest than any other part of the Madras Presidency.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 divided the male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 18,716; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 3741; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 18,004; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 346,608; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 128,721; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 310,097. About 51·75 per cent. of the population were returned as workers, on whom the remaining 48·25 per cent. depended. Of the male population, 64·48 per cent., and of the female, 39·63 per cent., were workers.

Of the 39 towns and 1458 villages in Tinnevelli District in 1881, 257 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 365 between two and five hundred; 389 between five hundred and one thousand; 267 between one and two thousand; 109 between two and three thousand; 67 between three and five thousand; 30 between five and ten thousand; 9 between ten and fifteen thousand; 3 between fifteen and twenty thousand; and 1 between twenty and fifty thousand.

The principal language is Tamil. It is spoken by 1,440,111 persons. The only other languages which are spoken by any considerable number of persons are—Telugu, 234,249; Kánarese, 12,490; Gujarátí, 1566; Hindustání, 7583; and Patnúl, 1820.

Agriculture, etc.—Agriculture supported in 1881, 540,088 persons, or 32 per cent. of the population. The area cultivated in the same year was—Government *ráyatwárí* lands, 1491 square miles; *inám* or grants

held rent-free, or at a low quit-rent, 240 square miles; *zamíndárí* lands, paying *peshkash* or fixed revenue, 864 square miles. The amount of rent, including local rates and cesses paid by cultivators, amounted in 1881 to £388,958; the average rent, including local rates and cesses, was 5s. 1¼d. per acre of cultivated land. Tinnevelli is a fertile District, and ordinarily enjoys good seasons. Out of a total of 5381 square miles in 1884, 1403 were uncultivable waste, 1178 uncultivated but cultivable, and 2800 actually under cultivation. In 1883–84 the total area of Government *ráyatwárí* lands was 1,895,734 acres; and of *inám* lands, 270,095 acres. Of the Government *ráyatwárí* lands, 1,021,367 acres were cultivated (of which 142,647 acres yielded two crops); of the *inám* lands, 171,663 acres were cultivated (of which 11,660 acres yielded two crops). Total cultivated area, 1,193,030 (of which 154,307 yielded two crops). The cultivable, but not cultivated, area was returned at 576,434 acres. Total area assessed in that year, 1,763,017 acres; total assessment, £308,810.

In 1883–84, in Government *ráyatwárí* and *inám* lands, 825,624 acres were under cereals and millets—chiefly rice, grown along the well-cultivated and highly productive river valleys, 292,042 acres; spiked millet or *kambu* (Pennisetum typhoideum), 215,979 acres; *china* (Panicum milliare), 111,833 acres; great millet or *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare), 92,134 acres. Pulses, 172,484 acres. Garden produce, 49,167 acres—chiefly *babúl* (Acacia arabica), 34,220 acres; plantains, 7223 acres, being more than in any other Madras District except Tanjore. Drugs and narcotics, 6044 acres—chiefly tobacco, 2432 acres; coffee (lately introduced on the slopes of the hills), 2103 acres, of which 423 acres were under immature plants, besides 605 acres taken up for planting but not yet planted—the approximate yield in that year was 128,158 lbs., or an average of 76 lbs. per acre under mature plants. Condiments and spices, 9695 acres—chiefly chillies, 4327 acres; coriander seeds, 1764 acres; onions, 1084 acres; betel leaf (Piper Betle), 2029 acres. Starches, 1044 acres. Sugars, 294 acres, all under sugar-cane. Oil-seeds, 65,782 acres—chiefly gingelly, 53,657 acres, only exceeded in the Madras Presidency by Godavári District; castor-oil seed, 12,025 acres. Dyes, 965 acres, of which 858 acres were under indigo. And fibres, 216,238 acres, of which 215,932 acres were under cotton (grown in the drier parts). Tinnevelli is one of the four great cotton Districts of Madras. The palmyra palm flourishes in the almost rainless tracts of red sandy soil to the south. The Shánáns live by making coarse sugar (jaggery) from its juice.

In 1883–84, the agricultural live stock consisted of—buffaloes, 89,003; bullocks and cows, 335,559; horses and ponies, 715; donkeys, 10,418; goats, 198,686; sheep, 644,544; pigs, 7441; and elephants, 7: dead stock—ploughs, 79,124; carts, 21,091; and boats, 211.

There were 202,451 acres of irrigated land, producing a revenue of about £165,000. The SRIVAIKUNTHAM anicut system is important. The anicut crosses the TAMBRAPARNI river (*q.v.*) about 16 miles from its mouth, and is the lowest weir on the river. There are about 2157 tanks, and about 131 anicuts (some very large and very ancient) across rivers, etc. Of the total population, 61·6 per cent. were settled on Government or *ráyatwári* lands (2964 square miles), 29·9 on permanently settled estates of *zamíndárs*, etc. (1446 square miles); and 8·5 on *inám* villages, *i.e.* permanently alienated as civil or religious endowments (424 square miles). There are 19 *zamíndárs* and 46 *mittádárs*. The chief is the *zamíndár* of Ettiyapuram, who pays a *peshkash* of £8835 a year. Some of these *zamíndárs* represent the ancient *pálegárs*.

In 1883–84, the price of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. was—rice, 5s. 1¼d.; *ragi* (Eleusine corocana), 2s. 7d.; *cholam*, 2s. 7½d.; *kambu*, 2s. 9½d.; *varagu* (Panicum miliaceum), 1s. 5⅛d.; wheat, 8s. 9¾d.; horse-gram (Dolichos uniflorus), 2s. 3¾d.; black gram (Phaseolus radiatus), 4s. 7d.; salt, 4s. 8⅝d.; sugar, 10s. 8d.; gingelly, 8s. 8½d.; oil-seeds, 4s. 10½d.; cleaned cotton, £1, 15s. 10d.; indigo, £12. The wages per day of skilled labour were—in towns 10⅞d., in villages 8½d.; of unskilled labour—in towns 4½d., in villages 3½d. The hire per day of a draught bullock was—in towns 6½d., and in villages 5½d. each; donkeys per score—in towns 3s., and in villages 2s. 7¾d.; and ponies each—in towns 6¼d., and in villages 7½d.

Natural Calamities, etc. — During the drought of 1877, Tinnevelli suffered comparatively little. The greatest number of persons in receipt of relief in any week was 24,117, in September. In 1878, the south-west monsoon was again unfavourable, and the north-east monsoon excessive. Much damage was done by two unparalleled floods on the Támbraparní, which laid waste much country; and in many villages what escaped the excessive rain was quite destroyed by locusts. The native Christians suffered least during the famine, and the Musalmáns much less than the Hindus.

Commerce.—Tuticorin is, of the four sanctioned ports in the District, the only one of importance. The exports are cotton, coffee, jaggery, chillies, etc. Sheep, horses, cows, and poultry are also sent to Ceylon. Tinnevelli possesses about 7·5 per cent. of the total value of the Madras Presidency trade. The annual average value of the sea-borne trade of the District for the five years ending 1883–84 was—imports, £411,988; and exports, £1,143,854; the exports have been steadily increasing during these five years. In 1883–84, the value of trade was—imports, £460,871; and exports, £1,439,559. About half the imports were from, and nearly all the exports were to, foreign countries. In 1883–84, the vessels that entered with cargo from foreign ports numbered 548, tonnage

60,159; and from coast ports, 825, tonnage 202,505. There is also a considerable inland trade with Travancore.

The coast is interesting on account of the pearl and *shánk* (shell) fisheries, both of which are Government monopolies. The pearl-fishery is very ancient (see above, *History*). It is mentioned by Pliny (A.D. 130), by Muhammad Ben Mansur in the 12th, and by Marco Polo in the 13th century. The Indian coast of the Gulf of Manár (from Cape Comorin to Pámbam) was called 'the coast of the fishery,' *i.e.* pearl-fishery, a name which it retained in the letters of the Jesuits up to 1780. The Venetian traveller Cæsar Frederic (1563–81) describes the fishery in a way which applies to the present day. Then, as now, the divers were all Catholics (Paravars). At one time the Dutch obtained from the King of Madura a monopoly of the pearl and *shánk* fisheries on the Tinnevelli coast, and derived a large revenue from licences to fish. The colour of the pearls of the Gulf of Manár is not good. This is perhaps due to the practice of letting the oyster putrefy before it is opened. The English first engaged in the pearl-fishery in 1796, since which time a total sum of nearly £120,000 has been realized, at a cost of not more than £600 a year. In 1822, the pearl-fishery produced a revenue of £13,000; in 1830, £10,000. Between 1830 and 1861 there were no fisheries, as the beds seemed exhausted. This has been ascribed to currents produced by the deepening of the Pámbam channel. In 1861 and 1862 the fisheries realized £37,858. Since then, all hope of profitable fisheries has been abandoned. A small steamer and a yacht are kept as a guard establishment.

The *shánk* or conch shells are found all along the coast, and from time immemorial have been sent to Bengal and elsewhere. Formerly the fishery was under Government management, afterwards it was leased for a term of years. From 1861 to 1876, licences were granted, which yielded from £480 to £600 a year. Since 1876 the fishery has again been taken under Government management. In 1882–83, the profit was £2204. The divers were paid £2, 10s. for a thousand shells, and the price got by Government was £11, 12s. for each thousand of good shells.

The aggregate length of imperial and local roads in Tinnevelli District is 1169 miles. The principal road is that which connects Madura, Palamcotta, and Travancore. It enters the District near Virudupatti, and leaves it near the 'Arambúli lines,' a total length of 107 miles. There are also some important roads connecting the cotton districts with Tuticorin. There are no navigable canals in the District. The total length of railways is 95 miles, all part of the South Indian Railway, the main line of which enters the District 5 miles north of Virudupatti, and runs to Tuticorin (77 miles), with a branch line to Tinnevelli town (18 miles). There are 11 railway stations. The railway is

of much importance, as it connects the port of Tuticorin with the cotton districts, Madura, etc. It was opened in December 1875, on the occasion of the visit of the Prince of Wales. During the famine of 1877–78, much rice was brought by sea to Tuticorin, and thence conveyed into Madura District. Besides the railway telegraph offices at every station, Government telegraph offices are open at Tuticorin and Palamcotta. The Bank of Madras has a branch at Tuticorin. Since 1859 there has been a Government District printing press, where the District Gazette is printed in English and Tamil (the prevailing language of the District). In 1883–84 there were 8 private presses, one of them belonging to the Church Missionary Society.

Administration, etc.—In the last century, Tinnevelli was supposed to yield £110,000 a year to the Nawáb of Arcot. 'So little was known of the District and its resources at the end of the last century, that, according to Colonel Fullarton, the Supreme Government of Bengal actually despatched Mr. Deighton to negotiate its transfer to the Dutch, in return for the temporary services of a thousand mercenaries. Before the negotiations could be entered on, war had broken out between the Dutch and English, and thus one of our most valuable Districts was saved' (*Madras Census Report*, 1871, vol. i. p. 309). In 1850, the total revenue was £261,580 (land, £202,460). Between 1873–74 and 1875–76 (ordinary years), the land revenue averaged £294,123. In 1876–77 (famine year), the total revenue was £416,154 (land, £242,363). In 1877–78 (also affected by famine), the total revenue was £427,040 (land, £236,545). In 1883–84, the total revenue was £483,679 (*i.e.* 5s. 8¼d. a head, the average for the Madras Presidency being 4s. 11¼d.). Land revenue yielded £290,670 (3s. 5d. a head, the Presidency average being 3s. 1⅝d.); excise, £11,898; assessed taxes, £1077; sea customs, £1856; salt, £145,700 (there are 7 salt factories); stamps, £32,478. The total cost of all officials and police was £66,515. The *ráyatwárí* system was finally established in 1820, since which time there has been a periodical revision of rates, as elsewhere in the Madras Presidency where this system prevails. The present settlement expires in 1906–07. The *zamindáris* were permanently settled under a regulation of 1802, and a special commission (1858–70) regulated the question of *inám* or rent-free lands.

For revenue purposes, the District is divided into 9 *táluks*, in 4 groups:—(1) Under the Assistant or Temporary Deputy Collector, at Palamcotta (*táluk*, Tinnevelli); (2) Under the Sub-Collector, Tuticorin (*táluks*, Otapidáram and Tenkarai); (3) Under the Head Assistant Collector, Shermádevi (*táluks*, Nánguneri, Ambásamudram, and Tenkásí); (4) Under the General Deputy Collector, Srívilliputtúr (*táluks*, Srívilliputtúr, Sátúr, and Sankaranainárkoil). All the above officials have criminal jurisdiction in their groups, and have under them 17

sub-magistrates, 9 of whom are the *tahsíldárs* in charge of *táluks*. The District and Sessions Judge has civil and criminal powers, with his Court at Palamcotta. Subordinate to him are 5 District *munsifs*, with civil powers. The heads of villages deal with petty crime, and try civil suits for sums up to £2. The police staff consists (1883–84) of 1 superintendent and 1 assistant superintendent, 21 subordinates, and 908 constables. The total cost was £13,447. The District jail at Palamcotta had in 1883–84 a daily average of 185 prisoners. There are also 16 subsidiary jails, which had a daily average of 40 prisoners. Palamcotta, which was formerly garrisoned by a native infantry regiment, has ceased to be a military station since 1881.

In 1883–84, the total number of schools connected with the Educational Department was 1486, with 45,373 pupils, *i.e.* 1 pupil to every 37 of the population. This proportion is only exceeded by Madras alone. There are more girls at school than in any other District. The number of girls' schools (1883–84) was 139, with 4256 pupils, besides one normal school for mistresses, with 81 attending it. According to the Census of 1881, the following could read and write:—Of Hindus, 10·6 per cent.; of Muhammadans, 12·7; of native Christians, 19·7; of others, 4·4: total, 11·4 per cent. Thus the native Christians stand high in the list of the instructed. There are no Government schools. All the schools are private (belonging to missions or otherwise): many are aided from provincial, municipal, or local funds; others are not aided, though under Government inspection. The Census of 1881 returned 46,515 males and 5085 females as under instruction, besides 135,271 males and 8014 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

There are 3 municipalities—Tinnevelli, Palamcotta, and Tuticorin. In 1883–84, the total income was £4419; incidence of taxation varied from 11½d. to 1s. 4d. For the administration of local funds, the District was formerly divided into 2 circles—Tinnevelli (6 *táluks*) and Shermádevi (3 *táluks*), but recently these circles have been amalgamated into one.

Climate; Medical Aspects, etc.—'Tinnevelli, lying immediately under the Southern Ghâts, receives very little of the rainfall of the south-west monsoon, though parts of it are watered by streams which rise in the hills. The rainfall on the hills dividing Tinnevelli from Travancore is probably 200 inches a year' (*Madras Census Report*, 1871, vol. i.). Throughout the District, the average rainfall is only 24·79 inches. At Tinnevelli town the average annual rainfall for 20 years ending 1881 was 28·7 inches; and at Tuticorin for 18 years ending 1881, 19·13 inches. The climate in the north is very similar to that of Madura, 'but there is a considerable difference towards the centre, and along the fertile banks of the Támbraparní. The northern monsoon seldom reaches these quarters before the end of November, and

generally is not so heavy as in the Central Karnátik. In common seasons, the rains are over about the end of December. . . . This District has one peculiarity of climate, which is that a fall of rain is always expected late in January, sufficient to raise the rivers and replenish the tanks' (Pharoah's *Gazetteer of Southern India*, p. 439).

The mean temperature of Tinnevelli town is 85° F. During December and January, the temperature falls below 70° at night. The hottest month is April. Kuttálam (Courtallum) is the sanitarium of the District. Tinnevelli is not reckoned unhealthy. In 1883–84, the percentage of deaths recorded from cholera was 22·7. The fever mortality averages only 3·5 per thousand. The total registered deaths in 1883–84 showed a death-rate of 27·4 per thousand. In 1883–84 there were 23 dispensaries, 4 of which treat each from 100 to 250 in-patients, and 16 from 4000 to 13,000 out-patients a year. In 1883–84, the Government vaccinators vaccinated 38,011 persons. The objection which the Labbays formerly had to vaccination on religious grounds is now vanishing. [For further information regarding Tinnevelli District, see *Manual of the Tinnevelli District in the Presidency of Madras*, compiled by Mr. A. J. Stuart, C.S. (Madras Government Press, 1879). Also see *Political and General History of the District of Tinnevelli in the Presidency of Madras*, by the Right Rev. R. Caldwell, D.D., LL.D. (Madras Government Press, 1881); also *Records of the Early History of the Tinnevelli Mission of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge and the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts*, by the Right Rev. R. Caldwell, D.D., LL.D.; the *Madras Census Report* of 1881, and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of the Madras Presidency from 1880 to 1884.]

Tinnevelli.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated in the centre of the District, and watered by the Támbraparní and Chittar rivers. Excellent irrigation by means of anicuts. Two rice crops are raised annually. Average assessment per acre of 'wet' or irrigated land, £1, 5s.; of 'dry' land, 10d. Rainfall varies from 9 to 41 inches. The Tinnevelli branch of the South Indian Railway enters the *táluk* by a bridge across the Chittar to reach the Tinnevelli station, situated half-way between the towns of Tinnevelli and Palamcotta. Area, 327 square miles. Population (1881) 171,378, namely, males 83,173, and females 88,205; occupying 36,113 houses in 4 towns and 119 villages. Hindus number 144,983; Muhammadans, 18,213; and Christians, 8182. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 3 civil and 4 criminal courts, including the District head-quarters courts; police circles (*thánás*), 14; regular police, 307 men. Land revenue, £30,340.

Tinnevelli (*Tirunelvéli*).—Chief town of Tinnevelli District, Madras; 1½ mile from the left bank of the Támbraparní, and the terminus of Tinnevelli branch of the South Indian Railway. Lat. 8° 43′ 47″ N.,

long. 77° 43′ 49″ E. Population (1881) 23,221, namely, males 10,963, and females 12,258, occupying 5369 houses. Hindus number 21,258; Muhammadans, 1538; and Christians, 425. Tinnevelli is the largest town in the District to which it gives its name; but the administrative head-quarters are on the other side of the river at PALAMCOTTA, 2½ miles distant. When the District was subject to the Náyakans of Madura, their Governor, who was a very high official, lived in great state at Tinnevelli. About 1560, Viswanátha, the founder of the Náyakan dynasty of Madura, rebuilt the town, and erected many temples, etc. Fergusson (*Hist. of Indian Archit.*, p. 366) cites the great Siva temple as giving a good general idea of the arrangement of large Dravidian temples, and as 'having the advantage of having been built on one plan at one time, without subsequent alteration or change.' It is a double temple. The whole inclosure measures 580 by 756 feet. Like some other large temples, it contains a thousand-pillared portico. In 1877, the municipal dispensary treated 719 in-patients and 5291 out-patients. The 'Hindu Anglo-vernacular school,' now the Hindu college, is the most important institution in the District. Tinnevelli is notable as an active centre of Protestant missions in South India. Municipal revenue from taxation (1883–84), £1615; average incidence of taxation, 1s. per head of population within municipal limits.

Tipái (called by the Manipuris *Tuwái*, and supposed to be a corruption of the Lushái name *Tuibar*).—River of Southern Assam, which runs a winding course through the Lushái Hills, and joins the Bárak in the extreme south-east corner of Cachar District. At the junction is situated the village of Tipái-mukh (lat. 24° 14′ N., long. 93° 3′ 3″ E.), where a *bázár* has been established for trade with the Lushais, at which cotton, *pari* cloth, caoutchouc, ivory, wax, and other jungle products are bartered for salt, rice, hardware, cloth, beads, tobacco, etc.

Tipperah (a corruption of *Tripurá*). — British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 23° 2′ and 24° 16′ 15″ N. lat., and between 90° 36′ and 91° 25′ E. long. Area, 2491 square miles. Population (1881) 1,519,338 souls. Tipperah forms one of the Districts of the Chittagong Division. It is bounded on the north by the Bengal District of Maimansingh and the Assam District of Sylhet; on the east by the State of Hill Tipperah; on the south by Noákhálí District; and on the west by the river Meghná, which separates it from the Districts of Maimansingh, Dacca, and Bákarganj. The line of contact between Tipperah District and the State of Hill Tipperah, besides being the District boundary, is also the imperial frontier line of British India in this direction. The administrative head-quarters are at COMILLAH (Kumillá).

Physical Aspects.—Tipperah presents a continuous flat and open surface, with the exception of the isolated Lálmái range. The greater

part of the District is covered with well-cultivated fields, intersected in all directions by rivers and *kháls* or creeks, which are partially affected by the tide. Nearly all communication and transport are effected by means of boats, except during the few months of the hot weather when the village footpaths can be made use of. With the extension of main and village roads by the Road Cess Committee, there is now a corresponding increase in cart and foot traffic all the year round. Near the eastern boundary, the country becomes more undulating. A series of low forest-clad hills rise to an average height of 40 feet above the plains. Near the large rivers towards the west, the country is under water during the rainy season. The villages are usually built amid plantations of mangoes, plantains, bamboos, and palms. The Lálmái Hills, already referred to, form the only range in the District. They are situated about 5 miles west of Comillah (Kumillá), and extend north and south for a distance of 10 miles. The average elevation of this range, which is densely wooded, is 40 feet above the plains and 90 feet above sea-level; they nowhere exceed 100 feet in height. On the top of Mainámátí Hill, north of the Lálmái range, the Rájá of Hill Tipperah has built a small house for the use of the European residents of Comillah. This is the highest point of the range, and the most picturesque spot in the District.

The MEGHNA, which flows along the entire western boundary of the District, is the only river navigable throughout the year by trading boats of 4 tons burthen; but the GUMTI, DAKATIA, and TITAS are navigable for craft of that size for a considerable portion of their course. The Mahurí, Bijáigang, and Burigang are all navigable by boats of 4 tons during at least six months of the year. The banks of nearly all the rivers are low and abrupt, and the beds sandy. The Meghná, in parts of its course, expands into sheets of water, resembling inland seas. Alluvion and diluvion, with changes in the course of the river, constantly take place, and small islands and sandbanks are formed and washed away every year. The Meghná is affected by the tide up to the extreme north of Tipperah District, and has a bore at certain seasons.

Numerous marshes occur, covering an estimated aggregate of 92 square miles, many of which are utilized as pasture-grounds in the cold season. The fine *sitalpáti* reed (Phrynium dichotornum), used for sleeping-mats, grows luxuriantly in the marshes, and the *solá* (Æschynomene paludosa) grows spontaneously and in large quantities in swampy lands. Many of the islands and sandbanks in the Meghná produce abundance of reeds for thatching and for constructing light fences. The Lálmái Hills are thickly wooded; there are also dense jungles towards the south-west of the District, but these yield no revenue to Government. The large game include tigers, leopards, wild

hog, jackals, and buffaloes; the small game consists of hares, geese, ducks, plovers, pigeons, pheasants, jungle-fowl, partridge, quail, snipe, and florican. With the increase of cultivation, and a liberal construction of the Arms Act, all kinds of game are yearly becoming more scarce.

History.—When, in 1765, the District of Tipperah came under the control of the East India Company, more than one-fifth of the present area was under the immediate rule of the Rájá of Hill Tipperah, who merely paid a tribute of ivory and elephants. In earlier times, it is certain that the conquests of the Rájás of Hill Tipperah carried the bounds of their kingdom far beyond the present limits of Tipperah District. It is, however, almost impossible to ascertain with accuracy any details of the early history of the British District, as the only written records are the *Rájmálá*, or 'Chronicles of Tipperah,' and references in Muhammadan writings, which relate almost exclusively to HILL TIPPERAH STATE. It seems clear, however, that as early as the 13th century Tipperah had reached some degree of material prosperity; for when Muhammad Tughral invaded the country in 1279, he carried off 160 elephants and a large amount of booty. Again, about 1345, Iliás Khwájá invaded Tipperah, and plundered it; but despite these and other invasions, the kingdom of Tipperah remained independent up to the time of Shujá-ud-dín Khán, who reduced it to subjection about 1733. The Muhammadans, however, did not occupy the whole of the kingdom, but appear to have contented themselves with the lowlands, which alone came on the rent-roll of Bengal, and lay within the jurisdiction of the Nawáb; while the hilly tracts to the east remained in the possession of the Tipperah Rájá. In 1765, when Bengal was ceded to the British, Tipperah and Noákhálí Districts were included in Jalálpur, one of the 25 *ikhtimáms* into which Shujá Khán had divided the Province. Until 1769, the administration of Jalálpur was entrusted to 2 native officers, but from that year until 1772 it was under 3 English 'Supervisors.' In 1772 a Collector was appointed, and since then the administration has been in the hands of English officers. In 1781, Tipperah and Noákhálí were constituted a single revenue charge; and in 1822 the Districts were separated. Since then, great changes have been made in the boundaries of the District.

The only event which has occurred to break the peaceful monotony of British rule, was a serious raid in 1860 by the Kukís or Lushéis. On the 31st January of that year, they suddenly entered the District at Chhágalnáiyá, burnt and plundered 15 villages, murdered 185 British subjects, and carried off about 100 captives. Troops and police were at once hurried to the spot, but the Kukís had remained only a day or two in the plains, retreating to the hills and jungles by the way they

came. The perpetrators of this attack were followers of Rattan Puiyá, whose clan was known to live far up between the sources of the Phení and the Karnaphulí rivers. In 1861, a large body of military police, under Captain Raban, marched against Rattan Puiyá's village; but no sooner had they appeared in sight, than the Kukís themselves set fire to the place, and fled into the jungles, where pursuit was impossible. Since this raid, no attack has been made on Tipperah District by the Kukís, although the neighbouring Districts of Cachar and the Chittagong Hill Tracts (*qq.v.*) have suffered from occasional inroads down to 1880.

Population.—The population of Tipperah District, on its present area of 2491 square miles, was returned by the first regular Census in 1872 at 1,408,653. The last enumeration in 1881 disclosed a total population of 1,519,338, showing an increase of 110,685, or 7·85 per cent., in nine years. The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 2491 square miles; towns 2, and villages 6449; number of houses, 184,356, namely, occupied 179,374, and unoccupied 4982. Total population, 1,519,338, namely, males 770,893, and females 748,445. Average density of population, 610 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·59; persons per village, 235; houses per square mile, 74; persons per house, 8·47. Classified according to sex and age, the population consists of—under 15 years of age, boys 328,719, and girls 316,018; total children, 644,737, or 42·4 per cent. of the District population: 15 years and upwards, males 442,174, and females 432,427; total adults, 874,601, or 57·6 per cent.

Religion.—As in all other Districts of Eastern Bengal, Muhammadans form the large majority of the inhabitants. They number 1,007,740, or 66·3 per cent. of the total population; and the Hindus, 511,025, or 33·6 per cent. The remainder is made up of 374 Buddhists and 199 Christians.

In the above classification, the aboriginal Tipperahs and other tribes are classed as Hindus. So much, indeed, have the Tipperahs been influenced by the people among whom they dwell, that not only do they themselves claim to be Hindus of good caste, but are recognised by the Hindus themselves as members of the same religion. They do not, however, mix with the Bengálís, but live apart in separate villages by themselves. A large number of them dwell in the Lálmái hills, where they are able to carry on undisturbed their own nomadic system of *jum* cultivation (for an account of which, see the article on CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS, *ante*, vol. iii. pp. 450–451). Their villages are under the control of head-men, who settle all disputes. Many of the Tipperahs are said to have taken refuge in British territory, in consequence of raids made by Kukís on their villages in Hill Tipperah State.

A full description of this interesting tribe is given by Captain (now Colonel) Lewin, in his *Hill Tracts of Chittagong*, and quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 482–488.

The Muhammadans form 66·3 per cent. of the population, and are distributed all over the District as landholders, cultivators, tailors, and boatmen. None of them are artisans, and only a few Afghán settlers engage in trade. The Muhammadan cultivators are said to cling closer to the land than their Hindu brethren. They do not follow any occupation to supplement the produce of their fields; neither do they engage in fishing or boating, or hire themselves out like the Hindus during the season when their labour in the field is not required. The great bulk of the Muhammadans are of Hindu descent, and numbers of the lower classes are largely imbued with Hindu prejudices, probably the remnants of the faith they once held. Muhammadan women do not work in the fields.

Among the general body of Hindus, who comprise 33·6 per cent. of the population, Bráhmans number 31,502; Rájputs, 1162; Káyasths, 69,373; and Baniyás, 5210. The principal lower castes include the following:—Chandáls, 83,023, the most numerous caste in the District; Jugís, 55,848; Kaibarttas, 50,290; Sunrís, 32,990; Nápits, 22,255; Dhobís, 16,555; Jaliyás, 12,516; Barhais, 11,544; Goálás, 11,099; Kumbhárs, 9706; Súdras, 9212; Málís, 8933; Lohárs, 7482; Telís, 6540; Kapálís, 5924; Baruís, 4804; Máls, 4774; Chamárs, 4353; and Kochs, 2495. Caste-rejecting Hindus number 6435, including 6164 Vaishnavs.

Town and Rural Population.—Tipperah contains only two towns with upwards of five thousand inhabitants, namely, COMILLAH, the head-quarters station, population (1881) 13,872; and BRAHMANBARIA, 17,438; total urban population, 31,310. These are the only two municipalities, with an aggregate municipal revenue in 1883–84 of £2136, of which £1841 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2d. per head. The rural population, numbering 1,479,161, is scattered throughout 6449 villages, classified as follows:—4163 with less than two hundred inhabitants; 1638 between two hundred and five hundred; 492 between five hundred and a thousand; 131 between one and two thousand; 20 between two and three thousand; and 5 between three and five thousand.

The Material Condition of the People throughout the District is very prosperous. Nearly every man is in some way connected with the land; and owing to the extreme fertility of the soil, the out-turn far exceeds the local consumption. The general prosperity of the people is shown in their houses, in their food and clothing, as well as in their general unwillingness to work as day-labourers, even when they are doing nothing, and have the offer of high wages. The requirements

of the cultivator are not great, and he can as a rule obtain from his field all that he requires; he is thus enabled to spend a large portion of his time in idleness. Until recently, the cultivators themselves gained almost the whole benefit derived from the increased trade of the District; and labourers now receive more than twice, and in many cases three times, the wages given twenty years ago. It is only during the past few years that landlords have begun to enhance their rents, and claim from the cultivator a share in his increased prosperity. But in another way the landed proprietor has benefited from the first, by the increased demand for rice for exportation. He has been enabled to bring more land under cultivation, and reduce year by year the large margin of waste land which even ten years ago was found in the principal estates in the District. To Tipperah, a famine in any other part of Bengal forms a source of prosperity; each man keeps for himself and his family all the food that he requires, and he is enabled to sell his surplus rice at an enhanced rate for exportation. The only people in the District who suffer are those who hold no land, but live on a fixed income in money. The one drawback to the increasing prosperity of the people is their love of litigation.

As regards occupation, the Census Report divides the male population into the following six main classes:—(1) Official and professional class, 18,742; (2) domestic servants, etc., 13,971; (3) commercial class, including all merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 24,906; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 345,554; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 54,362; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 313,358.

Agriculture.—The staple crop of the District is rice, of which two harvests are reaped in the year. The *áus* or early crop is sown in March and April on the higher homestead lands, and on alluvial patches in the beds of rivers, and reaped in July and August. The *áman* or cold-weather crop is sown in April and May, or as soon as the rains set in, and reaped in November, December, and January. Of these two harvests, 27 principal varieties are named. The green crops of the District include *til* (Sesamum), mustard, and chillies. The latter are grown to a great extent, the Calcutta market being largely supplied with chillies from Tipperah. Peas, gram, and several other pulses are cultivated. The fibres of the District are jute, flax, and hemp; and the miscellaneous crops include betel-leaf and betel-nut, sugar-cane, tobacco, coriander, safflower, turmeric, and ginger. Jute cultivation ranks next in importance to rice in Tipperah, and has much extended of late years. The seed is sown in April, and the crop is cut in August. It is all sent to Dacca and Náráinganj, and thence to Calcutta. Betel-nut palms are extensively cultivated

—in the south-western parts of the District even to the exclusion of rice.

According to the latest available estimate, the total area under cultivation is 1,301,760 acres, of which 1,150,000 are devoted to rice and 78,000 to jute, leaving 73,760 acres for all other crops. Taking the average out-turn of rice as 11 cwts. per acre, and making deductions on account of wastage and for seed grain, it is calculated that the total amount of rice available for food produced in the District is about 600,000 tons. Rates of rent have for several years been steadily rising. In 1858, the average rent for rice land was 4s. 6d. per acre; in 1872, it varied from 2s. 10½d. to 15s. 1½d. The enhancement is attributed to the general rise of prices. In 1859, the price of the best cleaned rice was 2s. 8d. per cwt.; in 1870, it was 5s. 5d. Common rice in 1859 sold at 1s. 8d., and paddy at 1s. per cwt.; while in 1871, the prices were 4s. 1d. for common rice, and 2s. for paddy. From 1880 to 1883 prices were low, and the markets glutted, owing to bumper harvests, and the *zamíndárs* experienced a difficulty in realizing their rents. In 1883–84, however, prices ranged high, on account of a short crop in other parts of Bengal, and common rice sold as high as 5s. 6d. per cwt. Wages have more than doubled since 1850. In 1883, unskilled and agricultural day-labourers earned from 6d. to 7½d. a day; blacksmiths and carpenters, 1s.; and bricklayers, 10½d.

As a class, the peasantry are now rarely in debt; and a late Collector reported in 1874–75, that he did not think there was another District in Bengal where the cultivators were so little in the hands of the *mahájans* or money-lenders. A farm of from 17 to 20 acres is regarded as a large-sized holding for a Tipperah peasant; and one of 10 acres makes a fair-sized holding, sufficient for the comfortable maintenance of a peasant with a small family. Anything less than 5 acres is looked upon as a small holding, and even this is not sufficient to enable a cultivator to live as well as he could upon a money wage of 16s. a month. About 4 or 5 acres can be cultivated by a single pair of bullocks. There is no large class of landless day-labourers in the District. Nearly every man either owns, holds, or has a share in, a piece of land sufficient to prevent his being compelled to labour for daily wages. Still, there are a few people who neither possess nor rent lands, and who subsist by working as unskilled day-labourers. They earn from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 (10s. to 12s.) per month, without food; or from Rs. 2 to Rs. 4 (4s. to 8s.) per month, if supplied with food. The rate of wages depends on their capabilities, and also on the number of meals they get a day. Sometimes landowners, instead of letting out all their land, reserve a portion as a home-farm to supply their own necessaries. This they get cultivated, on the terms that the *bargádár* (the man with whom the agreement is made) shall himself

cultivate the land, and the owner supply the seed and ploughs; the landowner and *bargádár* then share the crop equally between them. Women and children do not generally work in the fields, but children are employed in tending cattle.

Natural Calamities.—Tipperah is not specially subject to natural calamities of any kind. The crops have occasionally suffered from flood or drought, but not to such an extent as to affect the general harvest. Floods are due partly to heavy local rainfall, and partly to the Meghná overflowing its banks. As a protection against the latter cause, embankments have been constructed along the river Gúmti; but for these the civil station of Comillah, and the country to the south of the river, would be annually flooded. The highest prices reached in Tipperah during the Orissa famine of 1866 were—for rice, 13s. 8d., and for paddy, 10s. 10d. a cwt. These rates, however, were paid by outsiders; and most of the people continued to eat their rice at the price it cost them to produce it, whilst they received a handsome sum for their surplus stock.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of Tipperah is principally carried on by means of fixed markets, the chief trading villages being situated on the Meghná, Gúmti, Titás, Dákátiá, and their tributaries. The principal export of the District is rice, of which it is estimated that on an average 147,000 tons are sent away annually. The bulk of it goes to Náráinganj or Dacca; the remainder to Faridpur, Pabná, and one or two other Districts. The exports next in importance to rice are jute (of which 3676 tons leave the District annually) and betel-nuts. Other exports are safflower, sugar-cane, cocoa-nuts, bullocks, goats, tamarind, fish-oil, dried fish, hides, mats, chillies, linseed, bamboos, sweet-potatoes, timber, earthen pots, and mustard seed. Kingfishers' skins are sent to Chittagong for exportation to Burma and China. The chief imports are sugar, timber, cotton goods, cocoa-nut and kerosine oil, bamboos, thatching-grass, spices, salt, tobacco, etc. The value of the exports considerably exceeds that of the imports. The local manufactures are insignificant, consisting chiefly of weaving, pottery, gold, silver, brass and iron work, and mat and basket weaving. Indigo was cultivated and manufactured in the District for a few years; but owing to the determined opposition of the peasantry, the industry was not remunerative, and was abandoned in 1872. Road communication in Tipperah is still very deficient, but has been much improved of late years, and cart traffic is gradually increasing along with the construction of roads and bridges. It is, however, often necessary, in order to reach places not situated on the few lines of road, to travel by elephant or boat. According to the statistics of the Board of Revenue for 1868–69, there were 565 miles of rivers and canals navigable throughout the year, and an additional 177 miles navigable during six

months or more. A survey has been made for a line of railway from Dáúdkándí on the Meghná, to Comillah, the head-quarters of the District, with branches north and south to Assam and Chittagong respectively.

Administration.—In 1828–29, a few years after the separation of Tipperah from Noákhálí, the net revenue amounted to £88,811, and the expenditure to £13,177. By 1850-51, the revenue had increased to £99,276, and the expenditure to £13,249. Since that date, both revenue and expenditure have greatly increased. In 1860–61, the revenue was £105,302; in 1870–71, £121,936; and in 1883–84, £169,248; the civil expenditure being returned at £33,034 in 1860–61, £16,783 in 1870–71, and £23,837 in 1883–84. The land revenue was £102,306 in 1883–84; the other principal items of revenue being—stamps, £44,872; and excise, £8252. The District administration is carried on by 18 civil judges and 7 magistrates. In 1883–84, the number of estates was returned at 2047, and of proprietors at 12,258; average amount paid by each estate, £50, and by each proprietor, £8, 6s. 9d. In 1883, the regular and municipal police force numbered 320 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £6264. There was also a rural police or village watch of 2556 men, costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £11,130. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted in that year of 2876 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 1·1 square mile of the area or to every 528 of the population. The estimated total cost was £17,394, equal to an average of £6, 19s. 9d. per square mile of area and 2½d. per head of population. The District jail is at Comillah, and there is also a lock-up at Bráhmanbáriá. Average daily number of prisoners in 1883–84, 150, of whom 4 were females.

In 1856–57, there was only 1 Government school in Tipperah, with 127 pupils. In 1870–71, the number of Government and aided schools was 25, attended by 953 pupils; and since that year, owing to the grant-in-aid system introduced by Sir George Campbell, when Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, education has increased very rapidly. In 1877–78, there were 499 Government aided and inspected schools in the District, attended by 13,697 pupils. By 1883–84, practically the whole of the village primary schools had been brought under the Government Education Department. In that year, upwards of 3523 schools were inspected, attended by over 71,000 pupils. The *zilá* school at Tipperah was attended by 407 pupils. There are also two middle-class girls' schools. The Census Report of 1881 returned 35,349 males and 2198 females as under instruction, besides 62,792 males and 2707 females as able to read and write but not under instruction.

The District of Tipperah is divided for administrative and

police purposes into 3 Sub-divisions and 11 police circles (*thánás*), as follows:—(1) Head-quarters or Comillah Sub-division, with the 6 *thánás* of Comillah, Moradnagar, Dáúdkándí, Chandina, Jagannáthdighi, and Lákshám; (2) Bráhmanbáriá Sub-division, with the 3 *thánás* of Bráhmanbáriá, Kasbá, and Nabinagar; and (3) Chandpur Sub-division, with the 2 *thánás* of Chandpur and Hajíganj. The number of fiscal divisions (*parganás*) is 117.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Tipperah is comparatively mild and healthy. The cold weather is very pleasant, for, although the mornings are foggy, and heavy dews fall at night, the sky is clear during the day-time, and a mild north-west wind generally prevails. During the hot season, too, a sea-breeze usually blows from the south-east. The average annual rainfall at Comillah during the twenty years ending 1881 was 92·77 inches; of which 21·45 inches fell between January and May, 64·33 inches between June and September, and 6·99 inches between October and December. The average rainfall in the Bráhmanbáriá Sub-division is about 20 inches less. No thermometrical returns are available. The chief endemic diseases are fever (remittent and intermittent), rheumatism, bowel complaints, and affections of the skin. Cholera in a more or less epidemic form appears every year, sometimes causing serious mortality. Sanitation in the towns and villages has hitherto been much neglected, and the swampy and malarious nature of the country has doubtless much to do with the prevalence of fever and rheumatism. The District has 4 charitable dispensaries. [For further information regarding Tipperah, see *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W. W. Hunter (London, Trübner & Co., 1876), vol. vi. pp. 355 to 454; *Report on the District of Tipperah*, by Mr. J. F. Browne, C.S. (1866); *Geographical and Statistical Report of the District of Tipperah*, by Mr. R. B. Smart, Revenue Surveyor (1866); the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bengal Government.]

Tipperah. — Head-quarters Sub-division of Tipperah District, Bengal. Area, 1142 square miles, with 3733 towns and villages, and 83,716 houses. Total population (1881) 703,540, namely, males 357,961, and females 345,579. Muhammadans number 509,534, or 72·4 per cent.; Hindus, 193,523, or 27·5 per cent.; Buddhists, 322; and Christians, 161. Average density, 616 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 3·27; persons per village, 74·9; persons per house, 8·4. This Sub-division consists of the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Comillah (Kumillá), Moradnagar, Dáúdkándí, Lákshám, Jagannáthdighi, and Chandina. In 1884 it contained (including District headquarters) 10 civil and 5 criminal courts, a regular police force numbering 193 officers and men, and a village watch or rural police of 1163 *chaukídárs*.

Tipperah.—Native State in Bengal.—*See* HILL TIPPERAH.

Tiptúr.—Village in Túmkúr District, Mysore State, Southern India; situated in lat. 13° 15′ N., and long. 76° 31′ E., 46 miles by road east of Túmkúr town. Head-quarters of the Honavalli *táluk*. Population (1881) 2169. Seat of a large weekly fair, held from Saturday morning to noon of Sunday, and attended by 10,000 persons, including merchants from the adjoining Districts of Madras and Bombay. The value of the commodities exchanged is estimated at £3000 a week.

Tirhoch.—One of the Simla Hill States, Punjab.—*See* TAROCH.

Tirhút (*Tirhoot*).—Formerly a District of Bengal, now divided into the two distinct Districts of DARBHANGAH and MUZAFFARPUR, each of which see separately.

Tirí.—Capital of TEHRI or ORCHHA STATE, Bundelkhand, Central India.—*See* TEHRI.

Tirkanambi (prop. *Trikadamba-pura*, 'The city of the consort of the three-eyed Siva').—Village in Mysore District, Mysore State, Southern India. Lat. 11° 49′ N., long. 76° 51′ E. Population (1871) 1964. Not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. The site of an ancient city. Its original name is said to have been Kudugallúr, so called from having been founded on the threefold boundary between the kingdoms of Kongu, Kerala, and Kadamba. The early history is obscure. The fort was destroyed by the Maráthás in 1747. Remains of five lines of fortification are still to be seen, and the site of the palace is also pointed out. Twelve temples still exist, constructed of huge blocks of stone carefully fitted together. Their origin is lost in antiquity, but several of them contain inscriptions more than three centuries old, conferring grants of land. In the neighbourhood are many old tanks, now disused.

Tirkherí Malpurí.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Tirorá *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; comprising 13 villages, the largest of which is Tirkherí. Area, 35 square miles, of which only 6 square miles are cultivated. Population (1881) 3868, living in 839 houses. Tirkherí lies to the east, and Malpurí to the west of the Kámthá *parganá*. The estate contains much forest, but little good timber.

Tirohán (*or Tarahwan*).—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KARWI.

Tirorá.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Bhandárá District, Central Provinces. Area, 1889 square miles, 791 towns and villages, and 76,016 houses. Total population (1881) 411,298, namely, males 205,449, and females 205,849. Average density, 217 persons per square mile. Of the total area, 757 square miles are comprised in the nine estates or *zamíndáris* of Kamptha, Amgáon, Warad, Bijlí, Palkhera, Nansári, Purárá, Dangurlí, and Tirkherí Malpurí, paying only a light *peshkash* or quit-rent. Even within the Government (*khálsá*) portion of the

Sub-division, 239 miles pay neither revenue nor quit-rent, leaving only 893 square miles assessed for Government revenue. Of these, 435 square miles are returned as cultivated, 255 as cultivable, and 203 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total adult male and female agricultural population in Government (*khálsá*) villages, 94,340; the average area of cultivated and cultivable land being 4 acres to each. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £18,429, or an average of 1s. 3¾d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £30,369, or an average of 2s. 2⅛d. per cultivated acre. In 1884, Tirorá *tahsíl* contained 2 civil and 1 criminal court, with 3 police circles (*thánás*), and 8 out-stations (*chaukís*); strength of regular police, 121 men; rural police or village watch, 471.

Tirorá.—Village in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Tirorá *tahsíl*. Population (1881) 2781, namely, Hindus, 2476; Muhammadans, 200; Kabírpanthís, 82; Jains, 2; and non-Hindu aborigines, 21.

Tirthahalli.—Village and municipality in Shimogá District, Mysore State, Southern India; situated in lat. 13° 41′ N., and long. 75° 17′ E., on the left bank of the Tungá river, 30 miles south-west of Shimogá town. Head-quarters of the Kavaledurga *táluk*. Population (1881) 1590, of whom 1301 are Hindus, 175 Muhammadans, 109 Christians, and 5 Jains. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £101; rate of taxation, 1s. 3¼d. per head. Derives its name from the number of *tirthas* or sacred bathing-places in the Tungá. One of the hollows scooped out by the rushing water is ascribed to the axe of Parasuráma; and at the *Rámeswara* festival, held for three days in the month Márgashira or Agraháyan, thousands of persons bathe in this hole. The occasion is utilized for purposes of trade, and goods to the value of £30,000 are estimated to change hands at this time. The chief articles of import are cocoa-nuts and cocoa-nut oil, pulses, piece-goods, and cattle. There are two *maths* or religious establishments in the village, and several others in the neighbourhood, which lay claim to a fabulous antiquity, and are frequented by the members of various special castes.

Tiruchendúr (*Trichendoor*).—Town in Tenkarai *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated on the coast, in lat. 8° 29′ 50″ N., and long. 78° 10′ 30″ E., 18 miles south of Tuticorin. Population (1881) 7582, namely, Hindus, 6386; Christians, 984; and Muhammadans, 212. Number of houses, 1506. Tiruchendúr contains a wealthy and much frequented temple (with an interesting inscription), built out into the sea. Annual cattle fair.

Tiruchengod.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Salem District, Madras Presidency; situated between lat. 11° 15′ and 11° 43′ N., and between

long. 77° 43′ and 78° 15′ E. It averages about 25 miles in length and the same in breadth. Area, 637 square miles. Population (1881) 191,328, namely, males 94,456, and females 96,872; occupying 42,277 houses, in 2 towns and 290 villages. Hindus number 188,455; Muhammadans, 1656; and Christians, 1217. The *táluk* is one bleak glaring plain, with only a few hills and no important ranges; excepting the hilly portions, it averages from 540 to about 900 feet above sea-level. In 1882–83 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 11; and regular police, 92 men. Land revenue, £31,643.

Tiruchengod (*Tirushenkodu, Trichengode*).—Chief town of the Tiruchengod *táluk*, Salem District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 11° 22′ 45″ N., and long. 77° 56′ 20″ E., 7 miles from Sankaridrúg, at the foot of a huge rock, some 1200 feet above the plain, and 1903 feet above sea-level, on the summit of which is a temple of some repute. Population (1881) 5889, namely, Hindus, 5610; Muhammadans, 273; and Christians, 6; occupying 1079 houses. There is an important temple in the town. The chief trade is weaving. The making of sandal-wood balls forms an important item in the local industries.

Tirukovilúr (or *Tirukoilúr*).—The central *táluk* or Sub-division of South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 580 square miles. Population (1881) 206,489, namely, males 103,961, and females 102,528, occupying 26,002 houses in 343 villages. Hindus number 195,089; Christians, 7065; Muhammadans, 4095; and 'others,' 240. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 4; regular police, 47 men. Land revenue, £36,505.

Tirukovilúr.—Town in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Tirukovilúr *táluk*. Lat. 11° 57′ 55″ N., long. 79° 14′ 40″ E.; situated on the south bank of the Ponniar river, about 40 miles west of Pondicherri. Population (1881) 4676, namely, Hindus, 4231; Muhammadans, 416; Christians, 11; and 'others,' 18. Number of houses, 727. Deputy Collector's station; post-office.

Tiruma-Kúdalu (the present name of Nársipur *táluk*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Mysore District, Mysore State, Southern India.—*See* NARSIPUR.

Tirumale.—Village in Bangalore District, Mysore State, Southern India. Population (1871) 2109; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. A large festival or *parishe*, held for ten days from the full moon in Chaitra (April), in honour of the god Ranganáth-swámí, is attended by 10,000 persons.

Tirumanai Muttár ('*The River of the Pearl Necklace*').—River in Salem District, Madras Presidency. Rising in the Shevaroy Hills, it flows past the town of Salem, south through Tiruchengod and Námakal *táluks*, into the Káveri (Cauvery). A valuable source of irrigation.

Tirumangalam.—*Táluk* of Madura District, Madras Presidency.

Area, 625 square miles. Population (1881) 203,693, namely, males 99,662, and females 104,031; occupying 33,517 houses in 259 villages. Hindus number 199,120; Muhammadans, 2866; Christians, 1705; and 'others,' 2. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 11; regular police, 83 men. Land revenue, £34,123.

Tirumangalam.—Town in Madura District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of the Tirumangalam *táluk*. Lat. 9° 49′ 20″ N., long. 78° 1′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 5480, namely, Hindus, 4946; Muhammadans, 511; and Christians, 23. An early Vellálar colony, dating from 1566.

Tirumúrtikovil.—Village in Coimbatore District, Madras. Presidency; situated in lat. 10° 27′ N., and long. 77° 12′ E.; containing a venerated shrine of the Hindu triad, an old *mantapam* (hall of 1000 pillars), with interesting ruins and rock sculptures. Pilgrims visit the shrine on Sundays all the year round. Large annual festival. The sacred rock is a large boulder which has fallen apparently from the adjacent hill. In front has been erected a sort of canopy of bamboo and tinsel. On the slab of rock which forms the river-bed are innumerable engravings of the sacred feet, cut in fulfilment of vows.

Tirúnágeswaram.—Town in Combaconum *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5275, namely, Hindus, 4688; Muhammadans, 555; and Christians, 32. One of the principal seats of weaving industry in the District.

Tirupasúr.—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TRIPASUR.

Tirupati (the '*Tripetty*' of Orme).—Town in Chandragiri *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 13° 38′ N., and long. 79° 27′ 50″ E., 84 miles from Madras city. Population of Lower Tirupati (1881) 13,232, namely, males 6309, and females 6923, occupying 2599 houses. Hindus number 12,645; Muhammadans, 544; and Christians, 43. Population of Upper Tirupati (1881) 1517, all Hindus.

Tirupati is celebrated for its hill pagoda, in some respects the most sacred in Southern India. The chief temple is 6 miles distant, situated in Tirumala (or '*holy hill*'), known to the Europeans as Upper Tirupati, but the annexes and outer entrances of the ascent begin about a mile from the town. The deity worshipped is one of the incarnations of Vishnu, and so holy is the shrine that no Christian or Musalmán was until lately allowed to pass the outer walls. In an inquiry into a murder case, however, in 1870, an English magistrate entered the precincts. From all parts of India, thousands of pilgrims flock to Tirupati with rich offerings to the idol.

Up to 1843 the pagoda was under the management of the British Government, who derived a considerable revenue from the offerings of the pilgrims. Now, however, the whole is given over to the *mahant* or

Bráhman abbot. During the first six years of British rule, the average net revenue from Tirupati was upwards of 2 *lákhs* (£20,000). The amount has been steadily decreasing; the *mahant* states that the receipts of late years have averaged £21,173, and the expenditure £14,691, leaving a net balance of £6482. The annual festival held here is very large, and to it (in 1772) is attributed the first recorded cholera epidemic in India. There are several smaller temples, at which the pilgrims also pay their devotions. But the great temple is great only in its traditions. Those who have seen it describe it as mean in its proportions and very much neglected. The town of Lower Tirupati is situated in the valley, about 5 miles broad, between the Tirupati Hills and those of the Kárwaitnagar *zamíndárí*. Along this valley flows the Subarnamúkhí river, which passes about a mile to the south of the town. Lower Tirupati is a flourishing and busy place, crowded at all times with pilgrims. The Tirupati station on the north-west line of the Madras Railway is situated in a neighbouring village to the east about 6 miles distant, with a yearly traffic of 120,000 passengers to and from Tirupati.

The hill on which the great pagoda stands is about 2500 feet above sea-level. It has seven peaks, and that crowned by the pagoda is named Srí-venkatarámanachellam. The temple is said to have been built at the commencement of the Kaliyug or present Hindu era (B.C. 3100), when it was prophesied that worship would continue for only 5000 years, and that the end would be foreshadowed by a gradual decrease in the receipts from votaries. Only fourteen years remain to complete this period. Tirupati has been the scene of several struggles in the last century for possession of the very considerable revenue then derived from the offerings made at the shrine.

Tirupatúr.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Salem District, Madras Presidency; situated between lat. 12° 11′ and 12° 24′ N., and between long. 78° 30′ and 78° 50′ E. Its extreme length from north to south is about 31 miles, and from east to west about 40 miles. Area, 741 square miles. Population (1881) 169,977, namely, males 82,070, and females 87,907; occupying 31,408 houses, in 2 towns and 409 villages. Hindus number 150,557; Muhammadans, 17,666; Christians, 1742; and 'others,' 12. The famine of 1876–78 severely visited the *táluk*; the grass supply wholly failed; a cow could be bought for 6d. In 1882–83, the area under actual cultivation in the Government villages was 63,231 acres, paying £10,345. Irrigation is carried on from small rivers, tanks, minor reservoirs, and wells; irrigated area, 6393 acres, assessed at £3713. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 98 men. Land revenue, £16,838.

Tirupatúr (*Tripatúr*).—Chief town of Tirupatúr *táluk*, Salem Dis-

trict, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 29′ 40″ N., long. 78° 36′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 14,278, namely, males 6697, and females 7581, occupying 2213 houses. Hindus number 8686; Muhammadans, 5488; and Christians, 104. Tirupatúr is the head-quarters of the Head Assistant Collector of the District, and contains the usual Government offices, hospital, 2 Christian missions, telegraph office, and station on the south-west line of the Madras Railway. It is one of the most important towns in the District, and the centre of a network of roads. A brisk trade in grain and hides is carried on here. The railway returns for 1875, the latest year for which figures are available, show 76,000 passengers, 17,692 tons of goods, and an income of £14,500. The tank is one of the largest in the District. Tirupatúr was captured by the British, and retaken by Haidar Alí in 1767.

Tirupur (*Avenashi Road*).—Town in Palladam *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 37′ N., long. 77° 40′ 30″ E.; situated about 28 miles north-east of Coimbatore town. Population (1881) 3681, namely, Hindus, 3003; Muhammadans, 658; and Christians, 20. Number of houses, 713. Station on the south-west line of the Madras Railway.

Tirushavaperúr.—Town in Cochin State, Madras Presidency.—*See* TRICHUR.

Tirusiráppalli.—District and town in Madras Presidency.—*See* TRICHINOPOLI.

Tirutani (*Tritani*).—Town in Karwaitnagar *zamíndárí*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 10′ 20″ N., long. 79° 38′ 40″ E.; situated 50 miles north-west of Madras city. Population (1881) 2699, namely, Hindus, 2625; Muhammadans, 64; and Christians, 10. Number of houses, 351. Tirutani contains a temple much frequented by pilgrims, and there is a festival once a month. Station on the north-west line of the Madras Railway; the railway returns show 106,000 passengers per annum.

Tiruturaipúndi.—South-eastern *táluk* or Sub-division of Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 466 square miles. Population (1881) 168,103, namely, males 82,744, and females 85,359; occupying 33,775 houses in 238 villages. Hindus number 158,063; Muhammadans, 7256; Christians, 2715; and 'others,' 69. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 10; regular police, 116 men. Land revenue, £32,817.

Tiruvadamarudúr.—Town in Tanjore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* MADHYARJUNAM.

Tiruvádi (*Trivadi*).—Sacred town in Tanjore *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency; situated on the river Káveri (Cauvery), 7 miles north of Tanjore city, in lat. 10° 52′ 45″ N., and long. 79° 8′ E. Population (1881) 8473, namely, Hindus, 8232; Christians, 185; and

Muhammadans, 56; occupying 1400 houses. Sivají halted here in his first descent on Tanjore.

Tiruvádi (*Trivadi*).—Town in Cuddalore *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SETTIPATTADAI.

Tiruvakarai (*Trivakari*).—Ruined town in Villupuram *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 1′ 30″ N., long. 79° 43′ E. Population (1881) 571, namely, Hindus 562, and Christians 9. Number of houses, 80. Though now containing only a few huts, there are indications in the pagoda, tank, and deserted streets that a large town once existed on this site. A number of petrified trees have been discovered on a mound in the neighbourhood.

Tiruválúr.—*Táluk* of Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency. Area, 507 square miles. Population (1881) 143,324, namely, males 72,231, and females 71,093; occupying 21,830 houses, in 1 town and 300 villages. Hindus number 140,505; Muhammadans, 2159; Christians, 659; and 'others,' 1. The *táluk*, the best wooded in the District, is flat and uninteresting. The soil is generally either sandy or red ferruginous loam. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 57 men. Land revenue, £27,778.

Tiruválúr.—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency, head-quarters of Tiruválúr *táluk*, and a station on the south-west line, Madras Railway; situated in lat. 13° 8′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 57′ 20″ E., 26 miles west of Madras city. Population (1881) 4921, namely, Hindus, 4465; Muhammadans, 445; and Christians, 11. Number of houses, 765. Tiruválúr has a police station, District *munsif's* court, post and telegraph offices; it is an important religious centre, and contains a large but unfinished Vaishnav pagoda. The public offices occupy a building of unusually handsome style.

Tiruvanantapuram.—Town in Travancore State, Madras Presidency.—*See* TRIVANDRUM.

Tiruvankod (*Tiruvidankodu* or *Travancore*).—Town in the Eraniel *táluk* of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 13′ N., long. 77° 18′ E. Population (1871) 2351, inhabiting 464 houses; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. Only noticeable as being the town from which the State takes its name, and the former seat of government.

Tiruvannámalai (or *Trinomalai*).—North-western *táluk* of South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 944 square miles. Population (1881) 153,222, namely, males 76,670, and females 76,552; occupying 19,787 houses, in 1 town and 390 villages. Hindus number 144,453; Muhammadans, 4396; Christians, 3827; and 'others,' 546. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 15; regular police, 111 men. Land revenue, £22,356.

Tiruvannámalai (*Trinomalai*).—Town in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Tiruvannámalai *táluk*. Lat. 12° 13′ 56″ N., long. 79° 6′ 43″ E. Population (1881) 9592, namely, Hindus, 8398; Muhammadans, 1147; Christians, 31; and 'others,' 16. Number of houses, 1417. Tiruvannámalai is the first town on the road from the Báramahál through the Chengama Pass, and roads diverge north, south, and to the coast. It is thus an entrepôt of trade between South Arcot and the country above the *ghâts*, and its fortified hill (2668 feet above sea-level) was always an important military post. Between 1753 and 1791 it was besieged on ten separate occasions, and was six times taken, thrice by assault. From 1760 it was a British post, on which Colonel Smith fell back in 1767, as he retired through the Chengama Pass before Haidar Alí and the Nizám. Here he held out till reinforced, when he signally defeated the allies. The last time it was taken was in 1791 by Tipú. There is a fine and richly endowed temple, the annual festival at which, in November, is the most largely attended in the District.

Tiruvárúr.—Town in Negapatam *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 10° 46′ 37″ N., and long. 79° 40′ 34″ E., 16 miles south of Negapatam. Population (1881) 9181, namely, Hindus, 7897; Muhammadans, 1213; Christians, 54; and 'others,' 17; occupying 1535 houses.

Tiruvatiyúr.—Town in Saidapet *táluk*, Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency; situated on the coast about 6 miles north of Madras city. Population (1881) 6074, namely, Hindus, 5808; Muhammadans, 164; and Christians, 102. Number of houses, 984.

Tiruvattúr.—Town in Arcot *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 38′ 30″ N., long. 79° 36′ E.; situated about 24 miles south-east of Arcot town. Population (1881) 1353, all Hindus, occupying 189 houses. Tiruvattúr contains a highly venerated temple.

Tiruvella.—*Táluk* in Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 125 square miles. Population (1875) 97,820; (1881) 103,007, namely, males 52,719, and females 50,288; occupying 21,273 houses in 150 *karas* or villages. Density of population, 824 persons per square mile. Hindus number 69,155; Christians, 32,491; and Muhammadans, 1361. Of the Christians, 31,280 were Syrians, 889 Protestants, and 322 Roman Catholics.

Tiruvengudam.—Town in Sánkaranainárkoil *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 15′ 50″ N., long. 77° 44′ E. Population (1881) of a group of four villages, 8117, namely, Hindus 8036, and Christians 81. Number of houses, 1632.

Tirwá.—Southern *tahsíl* of Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a portion of the Central Doáb uplands. It

comprises the four *parganás* of Sakatpur, Sarakwa, Saurikh, and Tirwá-Thatia, and lies between the Isan river on the north and the Pandu on the south, the Ganges Canal running down the centre of the watershed between the two rivers. Total area, 388 square miles, of which 198 square miles, or 126,750 acres, are returned as under cultivation, the principal crops being *joár*, *bájra*, rice, cotton, and indigo for the autumn, and barley, wheat, gram, and poppy for the spring harvest. A network of unmetalled roads traverses the *tahsíl* in every direction. Population (1881) 171,546, namely, males 94,541, and females 77,005; average density, 442 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 161,154; Muhammadans, 10,310; Jains, 74; and 'others,' 8. Of the 261 towns and villages in the *tahsíl*, 153 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 60 between five hundred and a thousand; 43 between one and three thousand; 4 between three and five thousand; and 1 between five and ten thousand. In 1884, Tirwá *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 3; regular police, 38 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídars*), 326.

Tirwá.—Town in Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Tirwá *tahsíl*; situated 25 miles south-south-east of Fatehgarh town. Tirwá consists of two villages about three-quarters of a mile distant, but practically parts of the same town, Tirwá proper being the agricultural, and Gánj Tirwá the business and official quarter. Total population (1881) 6220, namely, Hindus, 4913; Muhammadans, 1242; and Jains, 65. The village contains the fort of the Rájput Rájá and owner of the estate, together with a handsome carved stone temple and tank constructed by a former Rájá. Gánj Tirwá is a busy and thriving place, and contains the Sub-divisional courts and offices, police station, post-office, and Anglo-vernacular school. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Tístá (*Teesta*, *Trisrotá*).—A large river of Northern Bengal. It rises in the Chatámu Lake, Tibet, but is said to have another source below Kánchanjangá in Independent Sikkim. After passing through and draining Independent Sikkim, the Tístá touches the British District of Dárjíling on its northern frontier, marking the boundary between Dárjíling and Sikkim for some distance, till it receives the waters of the Great Ranjít, in lat. 27° 6′ N., long. 88° 29′ E., when it turns to the south, and, after flowing through the hill portion of Dárjíling District, passes through Jalpáigurí and Rangpur, and finally falls into the Brahmaputra below Bagwá in the District of Rangpur.

The Tístá is not navigable by trading boats in its course through the hills, although canoes, roughly cut from the *sál* timber on its banks, have been taken down the river from a point some 8 miles above the plains. The Tístá debouches on the plains through a gorge known as the Sivak

Golá Pass. At this point the river has a width of 700 or 800 yards, and becomes navigable for boats of 50 *maunds* or 2 tons burthen; but for some distance navigation is very difficult and precarious, owing to the rapids and the numerous rocks and large stones in the bed of the river. After a short course through the *tarái*, the Tístá passes into Jalpáigurí District, which it enters at its north-western corner. It flows in a south-easterly direction, and forms the boundary of the Western Dwárs, dividing them from the permanently settled portion of the District, which, previous to 1869, belonged to Rangpur. After passing through Jalpáigurí it enters the State of Kuch-Behar at Bakshíganj, and after traversing a very small portion of the State, leaves it at Jhai Sinheswar. Entering Rangpur about 6 miles north of the village of Baruní, it flows across that District from north-west to south-east, till it falls into the Brahmaputra a few miles to the south-west of Chilmári police station in Bhawáníganj Sub-division; its length within Rangpur District is estimated at about 110 miles. It has here a fine channel, from 600 to 800 yards wide, containing a large volume of water at all times of the year, and a rapid current. Although reported capable of floating large trading boats of 100 *maunds*, or between 3 and 4 tons burthen, at all seasons, navigation becomes difficult in the cold weather, on account of the shoals and quicksands which form at its junction with the Brahmaputra. Several islands and sandbanks are formed by the current, but these are fewer in number and of much smaller size than those in the Brahmaputra. The bed of the river is of sand. The lower part of the Tístá, from Kapásiá to Nalganj-hát, is also called the Paglá river.

The Tístá is noted for frequent and violent changes in its course; and many old channels are found, such as the Chhotá Tístá, Burá Tístá, and Marái Tístá, each of which at one time must have formed the main channel of the river, but which are now deserted, and only navigable in the rainy season. At the time of Major Rennell's Survey (1764–72), the main stream of the Tístá flowed south instead of south-east as at present, joining the Atrái in Dinájpur, and finally fell into the Padmá or Ganges. In the destructive floods of 1194 B.S., or 1787 A.D., which form an epoch in the history of Rangpur, the stream suddenly forsook its channel, and turned its waters into a small branch marking one of its own ancient beds. Running south-east into the Brahmaputra, it forced its way through the fields and over the country in every direction, and filled the Ghághát, Manás, and other rivers to overflowing. It is impossible to say when the Tístá had previously deserted its ancient course, to which it reverted in 1787. Since the great change of that year, the river has made for itself another channel. A late Collector, Mr. Glazier, states: 'In the early part of this century, it [the Tístá] forsook a westward bend of about 40 miles in the

upper part of its course, taking a less circuitous bend in the opposite direction. It has since adhered to the course then formed, but with alarming encroachments on its sandy banks in several places. A large mart, Gorámárá, on the western bank, has been pushed gradually backward, until hardly a vestige remains of the village from which it takes its name.' The few merchants that remain are now one by one deserting it for a new mart which has sprung up near the Domar station of the Northern Bengal State Railway. The confusion in the nomenclature of the rivers in the west of Rangpur District is mainly caused by these frequent changes in the course of the Tístá.

In Dárjíling District, the principal tributaries of the Tístá are, on its left bank, the Ráng-chu, which falls into it on the northern boundary, and the Roli, which flows through the north-eastern part of the District; and on its right bank, the Great Ranjít, which after flowing through Independent Sikkim joins the Tístá on the northern boundary of Dárjíling, the Rangjo, the Ráyeng, and the Sivak. The banks of the Tístá are here precipitous; its bed is rocky in the hills and sandy in the plains. The summits of its banks are clothed with forests of *sál* and other trees. It is not fordable within Dárjíling District at any time of the year. Its waters are usually of a sea-green colour; but after rain, owing probably to the admixture of calcareous detritus, they occasionally assume a milky hue. A ride along the banks of the Tístá through the Dárjíling Hills, from Sivak at the base of the mountains, upwards to the confluence of the river with the Great Ranjít on the northern boundary of the District, well repays a lover of the picturesque. The thickly wooded banks at once afford shelter from the heat, and form a scenery which charms the eye; while the stream itself, now gurgling in its rocky bed, and anon forming still deep pools, with the background of hill stretching beyond hill, make up a picture of natural scenery rarely witnessed in India. In Jalpáiguri, the principal tributaries, all on the left or east bank of the river, are the Lesu or Lish, the Ghish, the Sáldangá, and the Dhallá. In Rangpur District, the Tístá receives numerous small tributary streams from the north-west, and also throws off many off-shoots of more or less importance. The largest of these is the Ghághát. The Manás is another branch of the Tístá, which rejoins the parent stream after a winding course of about 25 miles.

Reference has been made to the floods of 1787, which resulted in a calamitous famine. The following account is extracted from the Collector's Report:—

'The Tístá, at all times an erratic river, had for long rolled its main stream through the western part of Rangpur and through Dinájpur, till it mingled its waters with the Atrái and other streams, and finally made its way into the Padmá or Ganges. At the same time, it threw off a

small branch in the northern part of Rangpur, which found its way by a circuitous course past Ulípur to the main stream of the Brahmaputra, a little farther north than the place where the waters of the Ghághát found an exit into the same river. Suddenly the main branch of the Tístá, swelled by the incessant rains, swept down from the hills such vast masses of sand as to form a bar in its course, and, bursting its banks, the Tístá forced its way into the Ghághát. The channel of this latter stream was utterly inadequate to carry off such a vast accession to its waters; the water of the Tístá, accordingly, spread itself over the whole District, causing immense destruction to life and property, until it succeeded in cutting for itself a new and capacious channel, through which the river now flows. This great inundation occurred on the 27th August; and on the 2nd September, the Collector reported to the Board of Revenue that "multitudes of men, women, children, and cattle have perished in the floods; and in many places whole villages have been so completely swept away, as not to leave the smallest trace whereby to determine that the ground has been occupied." These calamities culminated in a famine. The coarsest rice, which had before been extraordinarily cheap, rose rapidly in price to from 23 to 20 *sers* per rupee (from 4s. 9d. to 5s. 5d. per cwt.), and was difficult to procure even at this rate. The Collector endeavoured to alleviate the distress by stopping all exportation of grain, and caused large quantities of rice to be transported from the large grain marts into the interior of the District, where it was most wanted; but this embargo was taken off by order of the Board of Revenue early in October. Collections of revenue were suspended for a period of two months; and provision was made for feeding the starving poor who were daily flocking into the town.

'The waters at last subsided, leaving the *kharif* crop, which at first had given promise of an excellent harvest, considerably injured, but not wholly destroyed, as had been anticipated. Six weeks of fine weather and the most careful attention to the young crop raised the expectation that the harvest might yet be a fair one. But the calamities of the season were not yet over, and a cyclone next swept over the stricken country. Early on the morning of the 2nd November, just as the rice was getting into ear, the wind began to blow with great violence from the north-east, attended by heavy rain, and continued to increase in force until the afternoon, when it suddenly changed to the east, and came on to blow a furious hurricane, which lasted for about ten hours. Hundreds of trees were blown down or torn up by the roots; the bungalows of the Europeans were almost all unroofed, and scarcely a thatched house was left standing. Upwards of six thousand poor were at this time in receipt of daily rations of rice at the civil station, and of these, forty died in the course of the night near the Collector's

house. The mortality in the town of Rangpur was much greater. It was estimated that in the course of this disastrous year Rangpur District lost one-sixth of its inhabitants. In *parganá* Pangá, half the population were gone.'

This flood resulted in numerous important changes in the course of the Tístá. These changes have left in the west of Rangpur District a maze of old watercourses and stagnant marshes, so as to render it nearly impossible to trace the course of the former rivers. In many parts of its course, the Karátoyá is still known as the Burá or Old Tístá; and its broad sandy channel in many places indicates the route followed by the Tístá, before the great changes caused by the inundation in 1787. Major Rennell's Atlas of 1770 shows the old course of the river, and at page 352 of his *Memoir of a Map of Hindustán* he states: 'The Tístá is a large river which runs almost parallel to the Ganges for nearly 150 miles. During the dry season, the waters of the Tístá run into those of the Ganges by two distinct channels situated about 20 miles from each other, and a third channel at the same time discharges itself into the Meghná; but during the season of the floods, the Ganges drives back the Tístá, whose outlet is then confined to the channel that communicates with the Meghná.'

The Tístá is navigable throughout the lower part of its course by steamers of light draught during the greater part of the year; but owing to the shoals and quicksands which form at its junction with the Brahmaputra, the navigation at that point is dangerous in the cold weather.

The Sanskrit names for the Tístá are Trishna and Trisrotá; the forming implying 'thirst,' the latter, 'three springs.' The Kálí *Purána* gives the following account of its origin:—'The goddess Párvatí, wife of Siva, was fighting with a demon (Asur), whose crime was that he would only worship her husband and not herself. The monster becoming thirsty during the combat, prayed to his patron deity for drink; and in consequence, Siva caused the river Tístá to flow from the breast of the goddess in three streams, and thus it has ever since continued to flow.'

Tisuá.—Village and battle-field in Bareilly (Bareli) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 8′ N., and long. 79° 38′ 25″ E., 20 miles south-east of Bareilly city, on the Fatehgarh road. In 1774, the British troops under Colonel Champion, supporting the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, gained a decisive victory over the Rohillás at this spot. Police station; *saráí*; bi-weekly market.

Titágarh.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, and a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 13½ miles from Calcutta; situated in lat. 22° 44′ N., and long. 88° 26′ E., between Khardah and Barrackpur. It contains several country residences of

European gentlemen. Although now an unimportant place, Titágarh was seventy years ago a scene of keen commercial activity. It had a dockyard, from which the largest merchant vessel ever built on the Húglí was launched—the *Countess of Sutherland*, of 1455 tons. No vestige of the dockyard remains at the present day.

Titályá.—Town in Jalpáigurí District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 29′ 35″ N., long. 88° 22′ 50″ E. Scene of an important fair, founded by Dr. Campbell, the first Superintendent of Dárjíling, for the purpose of promoting trade between the inhabitants of the hill tracts and of the plains; also one of the principal seats of permanent commerce in the District. The fair is held in February or March, at the time of the *Dol-jatra* festival, and lasts for fifteen days.

Titás.—River in Tipperah District, Bengal, which rises in and flows through the northern part of the District, till it debouches into the Meghná at Char Lálpur, after a course of 92 miles. A small canal from Bráhmanbária to Gokarno, between 2 and 3 miles in length, cuts off a bend in the river, and shortens the journey between the two places by about 30 miles. At present it is only navigable during the rains, and then only for small boats. A project for deepening the canal, and making it navigable all the year round for boats of 500 *maunds* or about 20 tons burthen, is under consideration. The principal town on the Titás is Bráhmanbária, situated on its north bank.

To.—A tidal creek or mouth of the Irawadi, known in the charts as the China Bakir, Lower Burma. It leaves the Kyun-tun or Dala river at the village of Kyun-karin, and after running in a south-easterly direction for about 70 miles, falls into the Gulf of Martaban, between the Rangoon and Than-teip rivers. It varies in width from 500 yards to 1 mile, and in depth from 2½ to 9 fathoms at low water. The banks are for the most part low and muddy, and a great portion of the adjacent country is inundated during the rains. For about 16 miles from its mouth, the water is salt during floods. In the dry weather, at spring-tides, a bore is formed which runs up the Tha-kut-pin or Bassein creek. From the mouth of the latter northwards, the To is navigable throughout, but below this it is rendered impracticable by a bar. From the Tha-kut-pin upwards, the To forms the dry-season route for steamers and large boats from Rangoon to the Irawadi.

Tochi.—River in Bannu District, Punjab.—*See* GAMBILA.

Todanád.—Sub-division in the Nílgirí Hills District, Madras Presidency; consisting of the petty divisions of Todanád, Búdinattam, Sambanattam, and Sígúr. Area, 375 square miles. Population (1881) 14,489, namely, males 7918, and females 6571; occupying 3090 houses, in 1 village, or more properly, a collection of houses scattered over a large area. The principal tract occupied by the interesting hill tribe of Todas, who have attracted so much attention from English visitors.

See especially the late Mr. J. W. Breek's *Primitive Tribes of the Nilgiris*, and Bishop Caldwell's *Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian Languages*. According to the Census of 1881, the Todas number in all only 689 souls.

Toda Todí.—Petty State in the Gohelwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 3 villages, with 2 shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 1 square mile. Population (1881) 612. Estimated revenue, £350; of which £14, 15s. is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £3 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Todgarh.—Town in Merwárá District, Ajmere-Merwárá Division, Rájputána. The fort was built by Captain Todd in 1821. The town lies about 2855 feet above sea-level, and is approached by a fair road from Beáwar. Post-office, dispensary, and a small but flourishing *bázár*.

Todupulai.—*Táluk* in Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 612 square miles. Population (1875) 23,353; (1881) 24,321, namely, males 12,335, and females 11,986; occupying 8588 houses, in 88 *karas* or villages. Hindus number 15,371; Christians, 6272; and Muhammadans, 2678. Of the Christians, 4294 are Syrians, and 1978 Roman Catholics. Density of population, 39·7 persons per square mile.

Tohána.—Town and municipality in Barwála *tahsíl*, Hissár District, Punjab; situated 40 miles north of Hissár town. Population (1881) 4155, namely, Muhammadans, 2166, mostly Patháns; Hindus, 1848; Jains, 81; Sikhs, 60. Number of houses, 696. Municipal income (1883–84), £104, or an average of 6d. per head. Once a city of some size and importance, founded, according to tradition, in the 6th century A.D., by Anang Pál, Tuár Rájá of Delhi. Ruined during the Chauhán supremacy, it recovered its prosperity in the early Musalmán period; but having suffered many vicissitudes of plunder and famine, it has now sunk into an inferior position. Numerous remains in the neighbourhood testify to its former importance. No trade. Head-quarters of a police circle.

Tolly's Nálá.—Canal in the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal, extending from Kidderpur (lat. 22° 33′ N., long. 88° 22′ E.), about a mile south of Calcutta, to Tárdaha (lat. 22° 27′ 15″ N., long. 88° 33′ E.). It is 18 miles in length, and connects the Húglí with the Bidyádharí. This was originally a private venture, under a grant of land for a certain period, which was made to Major Tolly in 1776, and subsequent years. As at first excavated, it was of insignificant dimensions; but with the increase of its importance, the channel was several times widened, until it has now become a much frequented passage (forming part of the Inner Sundarbans route), and is a source of considerable revenue to Government. The original course of the Húglí was identical with the present Tolly's Nálá as far as Gariá, 8 miles south of Calcutta.

Tondiarpet.—Suburb of Madras city.

Tonk.—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Haraoti and Tonk Agency of Rájputána. It comprises the 6 divisions of Tonk, Alígarh-Rámpura, Nimbhera, Pirawa, Chapra, and Sironj, separated from each other by distances varying from 20 to 250 miles, and covering a total area of 2509 square miles. The population of the State, according to the Census of 1881, was returned at 338,029, namely, males 176,869, and females 161,160; occupying 73,482 houses, in 5 towns and 1187 villages. Density of population, 134·7 persons per square mile. Number of towns and villages per square mile, 0·47; houses per square mile, 29·3; persons per house, 4·6. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 293,757; Muhammadans, 38,561; Jains, 5693; and Christians, 18. The Hindus were sub-divided into—Bráhmans, 20,168; Rájputs, 16,825; Chamárs, 34,029; Mahájans, 19,501; Gújars, 16,568; Minás, 15,798; Játs, 14,553; Ahírs, 10,501; Balais, 8418; Sondhias, 7714; Bhíls, 7373; Dhákurs, 7102; and Káyasths, 1500. The Muhammadans included—Patháns, 15,583; Shaikhs, 10,549; Sayyids, 2696; Mughals, 910; and 'others,' 8823.

The ruling family are Patháns of the Boner tribe. In the reign of the Emperor Muhammad Sháh Gházi, one Tála Khán left his home in the Boner country, and took service in Rohilkhand with Alí Muhammad Khán, a Rohillá of distinction. His son, Haiát Khán, became possessed of some landed property in Moradábád; and to him in 1768 was born Amír Khán, the founder of Tonk. Beginning life as a petty mercenary leader, Amír Khán rose in 1798 to be the commander of a large independent army in the service of Jaswant Ráo Holkar, and was employed in the campaigns against Sindhia, the Peshwá, and the British, and in assisting to levy the contributions exacted from Rájputána and Málwá. In 1806, Holkar granted to him the State of Tonk, and he had previously received the division of Sironj. In that year, Amír Khán transferred himself and his army to the Rájá of Jaipur, then at war with the Rájá of Jodhpur; and after crushing the latter, changed sides and reduced the former. Having indiscriminately plundered both countries, he, in 1809, proceeded at the head of 40,000 horsemen (being joined *en route* by 25,000 Pindáris) against the Rájá of Nágpur. He was, however, warned off by the British Government, and returning to Rájputána, his bands plundered the country. Eventually, in 1817, the Marquis of Hastings, with the view of putting down the Pindáris and restoring peace to Rájputána and Central India, offered Amír Khán the sovereignty of all the tracts bestowed on him by Holkar, on condition of his disbanding his army, which consisted of 52 battalions of disciplined infantry, 150 guns, and a numerous body of Pathán cavalry. Finding resistance would be useless, Amír Khán acquiesced,

His artillery, with the exception of 40 guns, was purchased, and some of his troops enlisted in the British service. The remainder were liberally dealt with prior to disbandment, and Rámpura fort and the division of Alígarh-Rámpura were presented to the Nawáb by the British Government as a free gift.

Amír Khán died in 1834, and was succeeded by his son Wazír Muhammad Khán, who died in 1864. He was succeeded by his son Muhammad Alí Khán. In consequence of abetting a treacherous attack on the relatives and followers of one of the chief feudatories of the State, the Thakúr of Láwa, Muhammad Alí Khán was deposed by the British Government in 1867, and his son Muhammad Ibráhím Alí Khán, the present Nawáb of Tonk, was placed on the *masnad*. The Nawáb holds a *sanad* guaranteeing the succession of his family according to the Muhammadan law, in event of the failure of natural heirs; and he receives a salute of 17 guns. The State pays no tribute to the British Government. Revenue in 1883–84, £128,526. The military force consists of 8 field and 45 other guns, 175 artillerymen, 536 cavalry, and 2886 infantry, with a small body of police.

Tonk.—Chief town of the State of Tonk in Rájputána, on the road and almost midway between Jaipur and Búndi. Lat. 26° 10′ 42″ N., long. 75° 50′ 6″ E. Elevation, 1462 feet above sea-level. The town is situated about a mile to the south of the right bank of the Banás river, which is here crossed by a ford, the water being usually about 2 feet deep. The town is of considerable size, is surrounded by a wall, and has a mud fort. Population (1881) 40,726, namely, males 20,447, and females 20,279. Hindus number 20,389; Muhammadans, 19,024; and 'others,' 1313.

Tonnúr (or *Tondanúr*).—Village in Mysore District, Mysore State, Southern India; situated in lat. 12° 33′ N., and long. 76° 42′ E., 10 miles north-west of Seringapatam. Population (1871) 566; not returned separately in Census Report of 1881. Historically interesting as having been the last refuge of the Hoysála Ballála kings after their expulsion from Dorasamudra by the Muhammadans in 1310. Here also is the splendid tank called MOTI TALAO, and a Musalmán tomb bearing date 760 Hijra, or 1358 A.D.

Tons.—River in Garhwál State and Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces. It rises on the northern side of Jamnotri, close to the source of the Jumna (Jamuná), and first issues as a stream 31 feet wide and knee-deep, from a snow-bed 12,784 feet above sea-level, in lat. 31° 5′ N., and long. 78° 40′ E. It takes a westerly course for 30 miles in a series of cascades, and receives the waters of the Rupin, where the stream is a rapid torrent, 120 feet wide. Nineteen miles lower down, it is joined by the Pábar, itself a large stream, though somewhat inferior in size to the Tons; and thenceforward the united stream forms

the boundary between that part of Dehra Dún District known as JAUNSAR BAWAR, and the Native States of JUBBAL and SIRMUR in the Punjab. Its course in this portion runs almost due south, through a succession of rugged limestone ravines, till, after having received the waters of another considerable stream, the Shalwi, it joins the Jumna in lat. 30° 30′ N., and long. 77° 53′ E., at an elevation of 1686 feet above sea-level. Total length, about 100 miles; fall per mile, 110 feet. The volume of the Tons at the confluence is greater than that of the Jumna, so that it may be properly regarded as the principal head-water of the united stream.

Tons, South-Western.—River in the North-Western Provinces. Rises in the Native State of Maihar, at a considerable elevation, and flows through a ravine of the Katra range, with a cascade over 200 feet in height. Thence it flows in a north-easterly direction, and 50 miles below the fall, passes through the Tárá hills into the plains. Twenty miles farther down, it joins the Ganges on its right bank, in Allahábád District, after a total length of 165 miles. The road from Jabalpur to Allahábád runs along its left bank for a distance of 26 miles from its source, and then crosses the stream at the town of Maihar, by an indifferent ferry. The road from Allahábád to Mírzápur also crosses the Tons, about a mile above its mouth. A bridge of 7 spans carries the East Indian Railway across the river, with a length of 1206 feet and a height of 75 feet. Navigation is confined to the lower reaches in the summer months. Floods rise as high as 25 feet in a few hours; highest recorded rise, 65 feet.

Toondlá.—Village in Agra District, North-Western Provinces, and station on the East Indian Railway.—*See* TUNDLA.

Tori Fatehpur.—Petty Native State in Bundelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Bundelkhand and Central India Agency. It is one of those States known as the *Hashtbháyá* (8 brothers) *Jágírs*, which arose from a division made by Rái Singh, a descendant of the Rájás of Orchhá, of his State of Barágáon among his eight sons. The State of Tori Fatehpur is almost entirely surrounded by the British District of Jhánsi. Area, about 36 square miles. Population (1881) 10,631, namely, Hindus, 10,012; Muhammadans, 485; and Jains, 134. Estimated revenue, about £3200. The chief, Ráo Prithwí Singh, is a Bundelá Rájput, born about 1848, and adopted by the late chief, Har Prasád, who died in 1858.

Torsha.—River of Bengal.—*See* DHARLA.

Toshám.—Town in Bhiwání *tahsíl*, Hissár District, Punjab; situated in lat. 28° 54′ N., and long. 75° 56′ E., 23 miles south-west of Hissár town, in the heart of the sandy hills of Chak Bágar. Population (1881) 2226. A bare rocky elevation, the highest in the District, rises abruptly above the town and desert plain to a height of 800 feet. A tank cut

in the rock, half-way up the hill, forms the scene of a yearly fair, and is frequented by pilgrims, some of them from considerable distances. Ancient inscriptions, scored on the surrounding rocks, have only recently been deciphered. [*See* General Cunningham's *Archæological Survey Reports* for 1872–73, vol. v. pp. 137–140.] The town is important at the present day as the head-quarters of a police station.

Toung-bhek-myo (or *Taung-bek-myo*). — Southern township of Sandoway District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma.—*See* TAUNG-BEK-MYO.

Toung-gnú.—District, township, and town in Lower Burma.—*See* TAUNG-NGU.

Toung-gup (or *Taung-gup*).—Village in Sandoway District, Lower Burma, and head-quarters of the Taung-gup or northern township.—*See* TAUNG-GUP.

Toung-gup (or *Taung-gup*).—River in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma.—*See* TAUNG-GUP.

Toung-loung-tsú (or *Taung-laung-su*).—Village in the Henzada township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. Population (1878) 3081.

Toung-ngu (or *Taung-ngu*).—District, township, and town, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma.—*See* TAUNG-NGU.

Touse, Kasbá. — Town in Udipi *táluk*, South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5582, namely, Hindus, 3885; Christians, 1069; and Muhammadans, 628; occupying 1044 houses.

Tranquebar (*Tarangambádi*).—Seaport town in Mayavaram *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 11° 1′ 37″ N., and long. 79° 53′ 44″ E., about 22 miles north of Negapatam. Population (1881) with the native suburb of Poraiyár, 6189, namely, Hindus, 4916; Muhammadans, 820; and Christians, 453; occupying 1255 houses.

Tranquebar is now within the jurisdiction of the Sub-Collector of Tanjore, and a Sub-Registrar is stationed here. In 1612, a Danish East India Company was formed at Copenhagen, and in 1616, the first Danish ship arrived in India. The captain, Rodant Crape, to effect a landing, is said to have wrecked his ship off Tranquebar, at the expense, however, of his crew, who were all murdered. He then contrived to make his way to the Rájá of Tanjore, and obtained Tranquebar for the Danish Company, with land around 5 miles long and 3 miles broad. A fort was built; and in 1624, Tranquebar became the property of the King of Denmark, to whom the Company owed money. For supplying arms to the Nawáb of Arcot, Haidar Alí, in 1780, exacted a fine of £14,000 from the Danes. Tranquebar was taken by the English in 1807, with other Danish settlements in India, but restored in 1814. It was finally purchased by the English from Denmark in 1845, at the same time as SERAMPUR, for a sum of £20,000.

In Danish times, Tranquebar was a busy port, and contained a number of Danish families, many of which left the place when it became an English possession. Under English rule, the revenue increased rapidly; and as the port affords better anchorage than Negapatam (Nágapattanam), it soon drew away the trade of the latter place. However, the construction of the South Indian Railway, which was completed from Negapatam to Tanjore in 1861, and to Trichinopoli in 1862, restored the trade to Negapatam; and Tranquebar is now half ruined. The export trade has disappeared, and the average annual value of imports for the five years ending 1883–84, was £3170; in 1883–84 the imports were valued at only £550. From 1845 to 1860, Tranquebar was the head-quarters of the District Collector, now transferred to Tanjore; and from 1860 to 1874, it contained the District and Sessions Court, afterwards removed to Negapatam. In 1878, the North Tanjore District Court, which had been in abeyance for two years, was re-established at Tranquebar, which is now also the station of a District *munsif* and sub-magistrate (deputy *tahsíldár*). The reduction of the number of officials has diminished the importance of the place.

Tranquebar is interesting as the first settlement of Protestant missionaries in India; and as a mission station, it still retains its importance. The mission was founded by Ziegenbalg and Plütschau (Lutherans) in 1706, and during the 18th century it gradually spread its influence over great part of the Tamil country. The best known of Ziegenbalg's successors was Schwartz (*ob.* 1798). In 1847, the mission passed from the Danes to the Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission. Their printing press at Tranquebar turns out very good work. The place is healthy.

The fort, a curious old place, is on the shore, separated from the cultivated land by a broad sandy tract. It is a square, of which the shore forms one side, on which the sea is gradually encroaching, and has already swept away the first church built by Ziegenbalg. All the European houses are within the small inclosure of the fort adjoining each other, and the absence of 'compounds' gives the place an appearance unusual in an Indian station. The bulk of the native population live outside the fort. The walls are well preserved, and the former citadel (the Danneborg) is now used as a jail. The fort also contains two Protestant churches, and a quaint little Roman Catholic church, under the jurisdiction of the Archbishop of Goa. The principal Catholic church is outside the fort, and belongs to the Vicariate-Apostolic of Pondicherri. Protestants number about 2000, and Catholics about 1200, in and near Tranquebar. Six per cent. of the inhabitants are 'Lubbies or Labbays' (Tamil Musalmáns).

Travancore (*Tiruvánkod* or *Tiruvidánkodu*, the southern portion

of the ancient division of Kerala).—Native State in the Madras Presidency; situated between lat. 8° 4′ and 10° 22′ N., and between long. 76° 12′ and 77° 38′ E. It is bounded on the north by the Native State of Cochin; on the east by the British Districts of Madura and Tinnevelli; on the south and west by the Indian Ocean. The extreme length of Travancore from north to south is 174 miles, its extreme breadth 75 miles. Area, 6730 square miles. Population (1881) 2,401,158 souls. The State is in subsidiary alliance with the British Government, to which it pays a tribute of £80,000 a year. It is divided for administrative purposes into 31 *táluks*. TRIVANDRUM is the chief town, and the residence of the Mahárájá.

Physical Aspects.—The following description is condensed from an account supplied by the Hon. A. Seshia Sastri, C.S.I., Díwán of Travancore:—Travancore is one of the most picturesque portions of Southern India. The mountains which separate it on the east from the British Districts on the Coromandel coast, and which at some points rise to an elevation of 8000 feet above the sea, are clothed with magnificent primeval forest; while the belt of flat country, to an average distance of about 10 miles inland from the sea, is covered with an almost unbroken mass of cocoa-nut and areca-nut palms, which, in a great measure, constitute the wealth of the country. The whole surface is undulating, and presents a series of hills and valleys, traversed from east to west by many rivers, the floods of which, arrested by the peculiar action of the Indian Ocean on the coast, spread themselves out into numerous lakes or lagoons, connected here and there by artificial canals, and forming an inland line of smooth water communication which extends nearly the whole length of the coast, and is of the utmost value when the sea itself is closed for navigation during the monsoon. Nanjinád, with its numerous villages, palmyra groves, and extensive swamps of waving rice, resembles in some respects the neighbouring District of Tinnevelli, except that, unlike Tinnevelli, it is nowhere sterile. Northward, this fertile plain is succeeded by the wooded and rugged surface of the typical Malayálam country. The rich and variegated tract along the coast is finely contrasted with the mountainous wilds farther inland. The hill scenery has peculiar beauties, among which are the wild, rocky, and precipitous acclivities and fantastic forms of the mountains in the southern parts. Farther north, the mountain chain becomes less bold, a few rugged cliffs and conical summits alone breaking the sameness of its outline. The high range opens out into clusters of hills, and the valleys are studded with temples and churches. Indeed, the numerous houses and gardens, scattered thickly over the country, give it an appearance entirely different from that of the eastern coast. Mannárgudi, Kolachel, Vilinjum, Pantarai, Anjengo, Quilon, Káyankulam, Porakád, and Alleppi are seaport towns, of which

Alleppi, Quilon, and Kolachel are by far the most important, the others being frequented only by small native craft.

The hill region is so extensive, and so marked a feature of the State, that it merits special notice. The mountains are of every variety of elevation, climate, and vegetation. Some tracts are even now considered inaccessible, and very little has been accurately surveyed. Certain portions have been made over to European and native capitalists, by whom the natural fertility of the soil is being turned to the best account; and every year, the area cultivated and the export of coffee increases. Some of the loftier mountains are entirely detached, except near their bases, from the neighbouring heights; they often have a precipitous descent towards the west, and are connected on that side with a succession of low hills, which diminish in altitude as they approach the coast. From Quilon southward, these secondary ranges soften down into undulating slopes, intersected by glens and valleys, which grow wider as the elevation of the hills decreases, and are cultivated invariably with rice, and are very productive. Among the mountains a few rough elevated table-lands are found; but the alternation of hill and valley is in most cases too rapid to allow of any large extent of level surface.

The above remarks refer to the country west of the Periyár river, between which and Dindigul rises a confused mass of hills. These have, however, similar characteristics; their summits, either broken into projecting cliffs, or thickly covered with trees, fall generally with precipitous abruptness, and present a variety of wild and magnificent forest scenery. These solitudes inclose some elevated plains (about one-twelfth of the whole area), which afford pasturage for cattle, and enjoy a good climate for a portion of the year. To the north, the mountains rise to an elevation of 8000 feet, with plateaux over 7000 feet. The more important of these is part of the group known as the ANAIMALAIS. The southernmost peak of note is the sacred Agasteshwara Malai, the source of the Támbraparni river. The plateaux, by reason of their good climate, rich soil, abundant timber and water-supply, are likely to become better known as the demand for coffee land increases. One plateau alone (Erevimalai or Hamilton's valley) is 6 miles long by 3 wide, and contains about 10,000 acres of excellent tea and coffee land. Similar smaller valleys are found in this group (called Mel Malai, or the Kannandevan hills, by Ward). At the head of the Travancore hills stands Anaimudi (8837 feet), the highest peak south of the Himálayas, and near it are several other peaks of 8000 feet. South of this group is the lower region of the Cardamom hills, so called from their special product. South of these, again, are large tracts of unsurveyed forest, which, with the exception of the Ashembu coffee plantations, and one or two narrow strips near the main passes,

continue to the Achinkoil river. Even south of this, although the hills become lower and narrower, the country is thinly inhabited almost to Cape Comorin.

Numerous rivers run down from the *ghâts*, which flow by tortuous courses, with high banks and rocky beds, into the backwater; most of these are navigable only near the sea. The chief river of Travancore is the Periyár, rising in the high ranges, which after a course of 142 miles enters the backwater at Kodangalúr; 60 miles of this river are navigable. The Pámbai, and its tributary the Achinkoil, and the Kallada, are the next in importance. The Western Támbraparni, or as it is locally called, the Kulitorai river, rising in the mountains to the north of Mahendragiri, a sister river of the larger Támbraparni, which flows east into Tinnevelli, flows westward, like all other Travancore rivers. Numerous small streams cross the narrow plain between the mountains and the sea. But no large irrigation works exist on them, the bounteous rainfall making these unnecessary, except in the extreme south. Here on the Paralai and Kodai there are anicuts constructed by Pándyan kings.

A succession of lagoons or backwaters, connected by navigable canals, extends along the coast, forming a most important means of communication. Its extreme length is nearly 200 miles, namely, from Chaughát to Trivandrum; but between the latter place and Quilon, there rises a high promontory of land about 6 miles in breath, the highest portions of which in two places have recently been tunnelled through to a length of over 3000 feet, and the remaining portion cut into a canal, thus making the line of water communication complete. The total area of these lakes is 227½ square miles, of which 157½ are in Travancore, 53½ in Cochin, and 16½ in British territory. The largest lake is Vembanád (east of Alleppi), but except during the monsoon, it is very shallow. A strip of land from 7 miles to about half a mile wide separates these backwaters from the sea. There are, however, several outlets; those at Chetwai, Kodangalúr, Cochin, Káyankulam, Iveka, and Paravúr, are the principal ones by which the rivers enter the sea. Every kind of merchandise, and the whole produce of the country, are carried on these waters. The boats are of various sizes, and in most instances are formed of a single tree, the trunk of which is hollowed out. The ordinary size is about 20 feet by 2½ feet; the boats for carrying rice to a distance are larger, and have a deck or roof. *Tambagum* (Shorea Tumbuggaia), *angeli* (Artocarpus hirsuta), and cotton trees are generally selected for boat-building, being durable and sufficiently large.

The lower hills contain much teak, *pun* (Sterculia fœtida), jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), black-wood (Dalbergia latifolia), ebony, palmyra (Borassus flabelliformis), and other valuable trees. Gamboge, gall-nuts,

honey, wax, ivory, cardamoms, and pepper are among the numerous forest products. The finest teak is found on the Cardamom hills, but except near the Periyár and other large streams, it cannot be brought down from the higher ranges to the coast. Pasture is plentiful on the lower slopes; and some of the hillmen herd cattle. Their cultivation is confined to a little destructive *kumári* or *jum*. Of the higher ranges, Mr. J. Munro says: 'The best wooded blocks of land are found near Devikulam, Annakadnai, and near Munár up to Párvatíyammalai; the slope of Anaimudi at the source of the Pámbai is also well wooded, but here the axe of the Muduvan has done much damage. The destruction of these forests has been partially stopped within the last few years; but in a large and rarely visited tract, it is not easy to entirely prohibit the old custom of clearing forests for the sake of a single crop. Much of the Nílgiri vegetation is found on these hills, and the rhododendron grows everywhere at an elevation of over 5000 feet. The trees, though principally of soft growth, are of large scantling, considering the high elevation. At the lower elevation of 5000 feet, the harder woods, such as white cedar, are found, but are not abundant. Some of the *kumeras*, which have only had one crop taken off, seem recovering their original character of forest; but this is seldom the case. The Brazil cherry is found especially on the sites of old clearings; but I have not seen the Alpine strawberry, so common on the Nílgiris.'

There are no important mines. Iron is abundant. Alum, sulphur, lignite, and plumbago exist, but are not worked.

The mountains and vast forests of Travancore afford some of the best sport to be got anywhere in India, especially for those who care only for 'large game.' Elephants, whose ivory is a source of State revenue, are very numerous. Tigers, leopards (including the black variety), bears, bison, *sámbhar* or 'elk,' *nílgái*, and various kinds of deer abound.

History. — No authentic history of Travancore in early times is extant; but tradition states that the whole Malayálam coast was reclaimed from the sea by Parasuráma, and colonized by certain Bráhmans, known as Nambúris, whose rule, after lasting for a considerable time, terminated in 68 B.C. The Bráhmans then elected Kshattriya chiefs to rule for periods of twelve years. This system of electing a new ruler every twelve years lasted for four centuries. The last and greatest of these rulers, Cheraman Perumál (Deputy of the Chera kings), at his death divided his dominions among his vassals, the eldest of whom received the southern portion, of which Tiruvánkodu (now a small village) was the capital. Upwards of three centuries are occupied by the reigns of the first twenty-three chiefs of this principality, who were continually at war with neighbouring chieftains. The 24th Prince was Eruma Varmá Perumál (1684–1717 A.D.). His

reign, and the reigns of his two immediate successors, were characterized by internal strife and oppression. Vanchí Mártánda Perumál, who reigned from 1729 till 1746, conquered Ellayeddatúnad in 1742, and Káyankulam in 1745. Next came Vanchí Bála Perumál, who further extended his dominions; he had a considerable army, disciplined after the European model, and commanded by Portuguese, Dutch, and Italian officers.

During the war with Tipú of Mysore, from 1786 to 1792, Travancore was the stedfast ally of the British. Tipú's invasion of Malabar alarmed the Rájá, and led to the agreement of 1788, by which the latter secured a subsidiary force of two battalions of the Company's army, at a cost of 1755 pagodas (about £650) a month each, to be paid in cash or in pepper. This force had scarcely reached the island of Vypin, before Tipú, claiming the forts of Aykotta and Kodangalúr, which had recently been purchased by the Rájá of Travancore from the Dutch, invaded Travancore (1789), but was defeated with a loss of 2000 men. In the following year, Tipú renewed his attack, and was again repulsed. In 1795, the Company entered into a second treaty with Travancore, the principal provisions of which were the restoration to the Rájá of the three Districts ceded by Tipú in 1792 to the Company, and the payment in return of an annual subsidy equal to the expense of three battalions of sepoys with European artillery. The Rájá in turn bound himself not to enter into any engagements with European nations without the consent of the Company, nor to give them settlements in the country; also to assist the English, if necessary, with troops, the Company bearing the cost of such troops.

Rájá Bála Ráma Varmá, with whom this treaty was concluded, died soon after, and was succeeded by his nephew, of the same name. With the latter the treaty of 1805 was concluded, by which the Rájá, relieved from furnishing troops, was required to pay for a native regiment, in addition to a subsidy fixed in 1795 (in all, £80,000 a year), and further, to share the expense of a larger force when necessary; to pay at all times the utmost attention to the advice of the English Government; to hold no communication with any foreign State; and to admit no European foreigner into his service, or allow him to remain in his territory without the sanction of the Company. In 1809, the Rájá had allowed the subsidy to fall into arrears, and he further refused to dismiss the useless and expensive establishment called the 'Karnátik Brigade.' The Díwán being the cause of this, the English demanded his dismissal, whereupon 30,000 Náirs rose in rebellion and surrounded the subsidiary force; they were, however, subdued, the 'Karnátik Brigade' was disbanded, and the expenses incurred by Government were paid by the Rájá. From this time Travancore has enjoyed unbroken peace.

Rájá Ráma Varmá died in 1811, and was succeeded by Lakshmí Rání, who confided the administration of the State to Colonel Munro, the British Resident. Lakshmí Rání died in 1814, and her sister Párvatí Rání was Regent till Ráma Varmá, Lakshmí Rání's eldest son, came of age. He reigned for seventeen years, and was succeeded by his younger brother, Mártánda Varmá, in 1846. His successor, Vanchí Bála Ráma Varmá, one of the sons of the only daughter of Lakshmí Rání, ruled from 1860 till his death in 1880. The present Mahárájá is his brother, Ráma Varmá (born 1837). In 1862, the Governor-General granted the Mahárájá a *sanad* authorizing the adoption of nieces to perpetuate the dynasty. According to Malabar custom, the succession devolves on the eldest male member of the royal family in the female line.

Population.—By an enumeration made in 1816, the population was then shown to be 906,587; in 1836, it was 1,280,668; and in 1854, 1,262,647. A careful Census was taken in 1875, the returns of which placed the population at 2,311,379. Although these figures naturally suggest that the earlier enumerations were defective, it is believed that the population of Travancore is increasing. The population, according to the results of the last Census in 1881, is 2,401,158, occupying 492,976 houses in 3719 towns and villages. The area of the State, taken at 6730 square miles, gives the following results:—Persons per square mile, 357; houses per square mile, 73; towns and villages per square mile, 0·55; persons per house, 4·9. Classified according to sex, there were—males 1,197,134, and females 1,204,024; the proportion of females to males being about 100·58 to 100. There is a considerable and increasing influx of coolies from Tinnevelli and Madura to the coffee-gardens of Travancore.

The religious division gives the following results:—Hindus, 1,755,610, or 73·12 per cent. of the population; Christians, 498,542, or 20·76 per cent.; Muhammadans, 146,909, or 6·12 per cent.; and Jews, 97.

The Hindus are thus sub-divided according to caste—Náirs, 464,239, or 26·44 per cent. of the Hindu population; Shánáns (toddy-drawers), 128,600; Kammálars (artisans), 92,578; Parayens, 66,454; Vellálars (agriculturists), 45,563; Bráhmans (priestly caste), 37,138; Vanniyans (labourers and cultivators), 22,526; Shettis (traders), 21,852; Ambattans (barbers), 14,578; Vánnáns (washermen), 11,152; Paravens, 7959; Sále, 6756; Kushavans (potters), 6209; Idaiyars (shepherds), 5823; Maravans (predatory caste), 5556; Rájputs, 2440; Vadukens or Naidus, 2069; and 'other' castes, 814,118.

The Muhammadan population includes—Sunnís, 130,738; Shiás, 15,220; Wáhábís, 936; Faraizís, 15. The Muhammadans are chiefly descended from Hindu converts of Arab missionaries, and their language is Malayálam.

The total Christian population numbers 498,542, of whom 287,409 are 'Syrians,' either Roman Catholics of the Syrian rite or Nestorians; Roman Catholics of the Latin rite number 153,815; the remainder, namely, 57,318, being Protestants. The large Christian population is a distinctive feature of the country. The Syrian Christians date from the earliest centuries of our era; the Roman Catholics of the Latin rite are the result of the European missions of the Jesuits and Carmelites during the last 300 years.

Of the population, 80·69 per cent. speak Malayálam, 18·31 per cent. Tamil. About 60 per cent. of the adult male population is agricultural, for the most part fairly well off. Of Shánáns and other similar despised castes, there are about half a million. As might be expected in a purely Hindu State like Travancore, these castes have a very low status, and labour under many social disabilities.

The chief towns of Travancore are—TRIVANDRUM, the capital, with a population (1881) of 41,173; ALLEPPI, the commercial centre and chief seaport, population 25,754; NAGARKOIL, 16,534; QUILON, the military head-quarters, population 13,588; KOTTAYAM, 11,293; and SHENKOTTA, 7882. Other important towns include PARAVUR, a rising port, KOTAR, and SHARETALAI.

Of the 3719 towns and villages in Travancore State, 1030 in 1881 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 998 between two and five hundred; 965 between five hundred and one thousand; 589 between one and two thousand; 97 between two and three thousand; 28 between three and five thousand; 6 between five and ten thousand; 3 between ten and fifteen thousand; 1 between fifteen and twenty thousand; and 2 between twenty and thirty thousand.

Travancore shares with Malabar the *Marumakkatáyam* law, and its many peculiar customs, social and religious. Immigrants from other Districts, as Tamils, Telugus, or Maráthás, who have made Travancore their adopted country, retain their own customs and manners; but the Malayáli customs are well defined. Among the Nambúris, the eldest son alone marries and inherits; the other children have no claim to the family estate or a share of its produce. In contrast to the custom prevailing on the east coast, they allow their girls to remain unmarried to any age, and even to die unmarried. Among the Náirs, the girls are all married formally when children; but when they grow up they may choose men either of their own or the Bráhman caste, and live with them, and the titular husband has no claim. The succession among the Náirs, as in Malabar, follows the line of sisters, and children by the sisters. A man without a sister or sister's daughter is without a legal heir, and must adopt a sister to perpetuate the family. The succession to the throne of Travancore is governed by the same law, though the

Maháráját claims to be a Kshattriya. The children of a Náir are therefore heirs to their maternal uncle, performing the religious rites at his decease, and succeeding to his estate. Nambúris and Náirs are very cleanly, and bathe several times daily. The Bráhmans, of course, burn their dead. The Náirs bury or burn their dead according to the custom and means of each family. The burning or burial in all cases takes place in some corner of their own gardens. The tuft of hair, which among the people on the east coast is worn on the back of the head, is here worn on the crown, and allowed to hang forward.

Agriculture, Land Tenures, etc.—Rice and the cocoa-nut palm are the chief sources of agricultural wealth. Next comes pepper, the vine of which grows round the stems of the jack and other trees. The areca-nut palm is also very valuable; while the jack-tree is the mainstay of the poor, its fruit being used largely as food, and its timber for house-building. Within the last few years, the cultivation of tapioca has so extended that it has also become a staple article of food. The rice produced is not of the finer varieties, except in Nanganád, and is not sufficient to meet local consumption. In the hills, the cardamom grows spontaneously in the deep shade of the forest; it resembles somewhat the turmeric or ginger plant, but grows to a height of 6 to 10 feet, and throws out at the roots the long shoots which bear the cardamom pods. The owners of the gardens, early in the season, come up from the low country east of the *ghâts*, cut the brushwood and burn the creepers, and otherwise clear the soil for the growth of the plants as soon as the rains fall. They come back to gather the cardamoms when they ripen, about October or November. The whole crop is delivered to the officers appointed by the State, the value of the *ráyat's* share being paid in money, according to the prices realized. It is an uncertain crop, being greatly dependent on the rains. Within the last twenty-five years coffee was introduced by General Cullen. About 50,000 acres have been taken up; and at the latest report (1883) 7033 had been planted, of which about 6268 were bearing. Approximate yield in 1883, 435,411 lbs., or 87 lbs. per acre of mature plants. The favourite soil for coffee is generally from 2000 to 3000 feet above sea-level. This industry is now unfortunately on the decline. Cinchona has been tried and abandoned. Tea cultivation is being attempted, as yet without much success; the difficulty lies in the treatment of the leaf, which grows well enough.

Buffaloes and bullocks are used for ploughing, but the latter do not thrive, and indeed the domestic and agricultural animals of Travancore are inferior and ill-trained. Fowls, ducks, and turkeys are plentiful and cheap.

The original land tenure of Travancore was identical with that of

Malabar—*janam*, or hereditary right in fee simple, subject to no State demand. According to tradition, the Nambúri Bráhmans, by whom Kerala was colonized after its reclamation from the sea by Parasuráma, received a free gift of all the land. This tenure survives at the present day in Travancore only in respect of lands still held (without having changed hands by sale or mortgage, except within the caste) by the Nambúri Bráhmans, and in their own occupation. These are absolute freeholds, *inám* or *lákhiráj*, as they would be called in other parts of India. The largest *janmí* is the Edapalli Chief, with a rent-roll of £4000. This freehold ceases, however, the moment the land passes into other than *janmí* hands for a money consideration. It then becomes liable to a light tax (*rájábhogam*), about one-sixth of the full tax and one-half of the quantity of seed required to sow the land, while the ordinary tax on such land would average three times the seed. Much *janam* land is now held by strangers on this *kánam* tenure, practically a permanent lease. *Janam* land thus alienated pays rent (often nominal) to the *janmí*, and a land-tax of varying amount to Government. Next to *janam* are the ancient holdings of *mádambimárs*, Náir landlords, whose lands, though commonly called *janam*, are not so, being subject to *rájábhogam* or light tax. All land which has lost the attribute of *janam* becomes *sarkár* (Government) land. *Janam* tenures forfeited for rebellion or escheated for want of heirs, lands reclaimed from the forest or the backwater, lands purchased for money, alluvial accretions, etc., also become *sarkár* lands.

Of *sarkár* land tenures there are several varieties. *Sarkár otti* had its origin in financial necessities. The State borrowed money from the owner of assessed land, and made the interest payable by a deduction from the land-tax. Lands on this tenure are very valuable, and can be sold, etc.; but at every alienation, principal and interest of the original debt are reduced 25 per cent.; thus after a number of transfers the tenure ceases to be favourable, and the land begins to pay full rates. *Annabhogam* (personal *inám*) is a tenure subject to a nearly nominal assessment; but, when sold absolutely, the tenure ceases, and the land is transferred to the head of, and dealt with as, *otti*. *Uliyam* or *vritti* are simply service *iná*ms. Most of such land are held by Náirs, who are bound to supply, at certain fixed prices, vegetables and provisions for the temples and *utpáras* (feeding-houses), and to render sundry other services. When the service ceases to be rendered, the tenure also ceases.

The earliest survey was made in 1772. No measurements of area were taken; the number of cocoa-nut and areca palms and jack trees in each garden was counted, and the area of rice lands was roughly estimated from the seed required to sow each field. Even in later years, regular

measurement has only been made in the case of new gardens or new rice-fields brought under cultivation.

The tax on gardens is paid on the number of trees—cocoa-nut, areca, etc. Thus, cocoa-nut pays from 3¾d. to 4¼d. per tree; areca, 1½d. per tree; jack, 4¼d. per tree; palmyra, 2¼d. per tree, or less. Dry lands on which cereals are grown pay from 2¼d. to 7½d. per acre. It is impossible to trace the data on which rice lands were assessed. North of Trivandrum, the average rate of tax was taken at about double the seed (the produce being seven and eight fold); and in the South Nanjanád, where there is much irrigation, the rate is five times the seed (the produce being twelve to fifteen fold). The net assessment of rice land averages about 4s. per acre.

Wages have risen considerably during the past few years. The ordinary village labourer used to get only 1½d. to 2¼d. and one meal for a day's work. Now a man cannot be hired for less than between 4½d. and 6d. and one meal, though his hours of work have diminished. The large demand for labourers on account of public works, and the increased cost of the necessaries of life, are the main causes of this sudden rise in wages.

Trade, Communications, etc.—The exports are chiefly dried cocoa-nut, coir, cocoa-nuts (in shell), cocoa-nut oil, areca-nut, dry ginger, pepper, salt fish, timber, coffee, cardamoms, beeswax, tamarind, and palmyra jaggery. The imports are tobacco, English piece-goods, rice, thread, cotton, and copper. The value of exports (in 1882–83) was £770,345, and of imports, £489,380.

Owing to the excellent inland water communication afforded by the backwater, Travancore has not many roads. Lately, however, much progress has been made in road-making. The road from Trivandrum across the Arambúli Pass to Tinnevelli has been thoroughly repaired, and the Arvan Kava line has been provided with a good cart-road. A road to Pirmaid, with branches to both sides of the *ghâts*, and several other roads, connect these lines. On the whole, internal communication is tolerably complete.

Revenue, Administration, etc.—The gross revenue of the State of Travancore in 1882–83 was £602,254; gross expenditure, £592,016. The chief source of revenue is the land-tax, which produced £175,969; customs yielded £41,071; arrack and opium duties, £28,321; tobacco duty, £77,824; salt, £132,378; cardamoms and timber, £33,326. In the same year, £84,987 was expended on public works. No transit duties are levied between Travancore and British territory.

The judicial establishment consists of eighteen *munsif's* courts, sixty criminal and five *zilá* courts, all controlled by a *sadr* or High Court at the capital. Travancore has no distinct organized police force, as far as the supervising and controlling agency is concerned; the *díwán*

peshkárs or divisional officers, the *tahsíldárs* and sub-magistrates, are the police functionaries. In 1882–83, the police force numbered 1611 of all ranks, being 1 policeman to every 4·2 square miles of country and to every 1490 of the population.

There are four jails, two at the capital, Trivandrum, one at Quilon, and the fourth at Alleppi. The average daily number of prisoners in 1882 was 525; the average mortality, 4 per cent.; the average cost per head per annum, £7, 13s. Intramural labour has been recently introduced with success into the central jail at Trivandrum.

The chief educational institution is the Trivandrum High School and College, which contains over 1700 pupils. There is also a girls' school at Trivandrum, superintended by an English lady, with an attendance of 70 pupils. There are 24 District schools, feeders to the High School; these are analogous to the *zilá* schools of the Madras Presidency. Then come the vernacular schools, divided into four classes, District, village, town-aided, and provincial-aided. There are 39 of the first and 185 of the second, while the aided schools number 25 in the town and 415 in the interior. The total attendance of pupils in all these schools amounts to 35,558. By far the largest number of aided schools belong to missionary agencies. The schools of the Church, London, and Roman Catholic missions also receive State grants. The attendance in the mission schools is nearly 16,000. A special school at Mavelikara, in the Quilon Division—a sort of Rájkumar college—intended to educate the youths of the families of the *tamburáns* or chiefs, was established in 1872–73.

A Director of Vernacular Education, with an adequate staff of inspectors and deputy inspectors, controls the schools. The total cost of educational establishments in 1882–83, maintained by the State, was, exclusive of furniture, buildings, etc., £10,000. 'Travancore does not compare unfavourably with the well-governed provinces of British India in the matter of the education of its people. There are in the country 132,702 persons able to read and write, which gives a proportion of 5·52 educated in every 100.'—(*Census Report* of 1875.) With a view to the further extension and improvement of primary education, the grant-in-aid rules have lately been so extended as to admit of the large number of indigenous schools to be found throughout the country being brought into the educational system of the State. Very recently, a book society has been formed for preparing school-books, and otherwise supplying the constantly-increasing demand for instruction and healthy reading. A normal school has also been established for meeting another great want, namely, trained vernacular teachers for the numerous State, aided, and indigenous schools.

Until 1861, the *anchal* or local post was maintained only for State purposes; it is now open to the public. There were 87 post-offices in

Travancore in 1882–83, the total cost of which was £3974. The number of private letters carried in 1882–83 was 351,303.

The military force of the State (1883–84) consists of 1360 infantry, 60 cavalry, and 30 artillerymen, with four guns.

Medical Aspects.—In common with the whole belt of coast-line on the western side of India under the *ghâts*, Travancore has an abundant rainfall; and droughts are almost unknown. Every variety of climate and temperature is found in the State. The climate of the lower country is much the same as that of Malabar; and is influenced in the same way by the long seaboard and the heavy south-west monsoon. From March to the beginning of May it is hot; the readings of the thermometer in the shade are often 90° and 91° F., and seldom below 86°. From June to September is the wet season, when the temperature is not high. October to February is the cold season, and temperature is rarely as high as 80°, except in February. The most characteristic endemic is the disease known as 'Cochin leg;' and fevers are prevalent in some of the inland tracts.

Trevandrum.—Town and *táluk* in Travancore State, Madras Presidency.—*See* TRIVANDRUM.

Tribení ('*The Three Streams*').—Village in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 59′ 10″ N., long. 88° 26′ 40″ E. The inhabitants live principally by river traffic. This place is so called from being situated at the junction of the Ganges or Húglí, the Saraswatí, and the Jamuná, the last-named stream flowing into the Húglí on its left bank opposite the southern extremity of an extensive island in the middle of the river facing Tribení. North of the Saraswatí is the broad and high Tribení *ghát*, a magnificent flight of steps, attributed to Mukund Deo, the last sovereign of the Gajapati dynasty of Orissa, who was reigning in the 16th century. South of the Saraswatí lies the village of Tribení itself, which is considered to possess great sanctity. The Rev. Mr. Long, in an article in the *Calcutta Review*, published many years ago, says that Tribení was one of the four *samáj* or places famous for Hindu learning; the others being Nadiyá, Sántipur, and Guptipárá. Formerly there were over 30 Sanskrit schools here. Tribení was also once noted for its trade.

South of Tribení village stands a famous mosque, originally a Hindu temple, which contains the tomb of Zafar Khán, described by the late Professor Blochmann in the *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, vol. xxxix. part i. for 1870, p. 282. The principal Hindu festivals held at Tribení are the following:—(1) *Makara Sankránti* or *Uttaráyan*, the day on which the sun enters Capricorn, takes place in January, on the last day of the Hindu month of Paush, and the first day of the succeeding month of Mágh. The observances consist of offerings to progenitors, either general or special; to the

domestic genii, the guardians of the dwelling; and to the universal gods. The ceremonies are performed within the abode of the householder, and are conducted by the family priest. The great Bathing Festival on Ságar Island is held at the time of the *Makara Sankránti;* and a *melá* or fair at Tribení, which is attended by about 8000 persons. (2) *Bisuva Sankránti*, held in honour of the sun at the time of the vernal equinox, falling within our February; (3) *Báruní*, the great Bathing Festival of Bengal, in honour of Baruna, the god of the waters, held in February or March; (4) *Dasaharáa*, held in June, in commemoration of the descent of the goddess Gangá from heaven to save the souls of the 60,000 sons of King Ságar, who were reduced to ashes for the crime of assaulting a Bráhman sage; (5) *Kártik*, in honour of Kártikeya, son of the goddess Durgá. All these gatherings are utilized for purposes of trade. [For a full account of Tribení, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 322, 323.]

Trichendoor.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TIRUCHENDUR.

Trichengode.—*Táluk* and town in Salem District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TIRUCHENGOD.

Trichinopoli. — British District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 10° 37′ and 11° 30′ 30″ N. lat., and between 78° 12′ and 79° 30′ E. Area, according to the Census Report of 1881, 3561 square miles; population (1881) 1,215,033 souls. The District is bounded on the north-west and north by Salem, on the north and north-east by South Arcot, on the east and south-east by Tanjore, on the south by the Pudukottai State and Madura, and on the west by Coimbatore. The administrative head-quarters are at the city of TRICHINOPOLI.

Physical Aspects.—The surface of the country, though generally flat, is broken here and there by protruding masses of crystalline rock, of which the Trichinopoli Rock in the fort, and the Golden Rock near the central jail, are well-known examples. Many others are scattered over the District, including Ratnágiri, near Kulittalai, and Perumálmalai, near Turaiyúr. The only mountains of any importance are the Pachaimalais (height about 2500 feet), which extend into Salem District. These are very malarious.

The river KAVERI (Cauvery), and its branch the COLEROON, are the most important rivers in Trichinopoli. The former enters the District at its western extremity, and traverses it from west to east. About 11 miles west of the city of Trichinopoli it separates into two branches, one of which, flowing south-east, retains the name of Káveri, while the other, running north-east, is termed the Coleroon. These rivers almost rejoin each other about 10 miles east of Trichinopoli city, where it has been found necessary to separate them by an artificial embankment. The tract thus enclosed by the two rivers is known as the island of

SRIRANGAM. After its separation from the Káveri, the Coleroon flows north-east through the *táluk* of Trichinopoli, and farther on forms the boundary between Udayárpálaiyam *táluk* and Tanjore District. The river Vellár forms the northern boundary of a portion of the District, separating it from South Arcot. A few villages in the extreme west are irrigated by the Amarávati, which forms the boundary between Trichinopoli and Coimbatore.

The chief minerals of economic value are building-stone and stone useful for road metalling, including gneiss, limestone, and laterite. Pottery materials, including pipe-clay, gypsum, etc., are common; but the gypsum is generally impure. Common salt effloresces from the soil in many parts, and is collected by the poor for household use. The cretaceous rocks contain ferruginous nodules, which were formerly smelted when fuel was more abundant. One or two villages in the north of Musiri *táluk* are the only places where iron is now manufactured. Copper-ores are found in small quantities. A shell marble is found in Perambalúr *táluk*, of which the tops of tables, paper-weights, and similar ornaments are made. The geological survey of Trichinopoli was made in 1857–60 (*Memorials of the Geological Survey*, vol. iv. parts 1 and 2).

The Pachaimalai hills contain a fair amount of jungle, the most common tree being the *usilai* (Albizzia amara). The recent extension of cultivation has denuded the hills of much of the jungle on the summit, though there are still in parts large areas of fairly good forest, containing valuable trees, such as blackwood, teak, *vengai* (Pterocarpus Marsupium), and *vekkali* (Anogeissus latifolia). Clumps of bamboo are scattered all over the hills. The minor products of the hills consist of gall-nuts, and a few barks, honey, wax, etc.; the hill gooseberry is found in large quantities. A considerable revenue is obtained from the sale of forest products, and from fuel for the South Indian Railway Company. The Forest Department commenced work here in 1871, but little was done beyond the formation of railway fuel reserves and plantations till quite recently. There are now a number of plantations, principally Casuarina, along the banks of the Káveri and the Coleroon.

The larger wild animals are almost extinct. A tiger now and then makes his appearance; bears and leopards are occasionally found on the Pachaimalai hills and in Perambalúr *táluk*. Snipe, teal, and wild duck are plentiful, but no game of any other description.

History.—The earliest trustworthy information regarding that portion of Southern India, of which Trichinopoli forms a part, indicates that it was formerly divided between the Chola, Chera, and Pándya kingdoms. The origin of these is obscure. (*See* TINNEVELLI DISTRICT.) It appears probable that they existed as early as the 5th century B.C. They lasted under various forms till the 16th century. During the greater portion

of this period, Trichinopoli formed a part of the Chola kingdom, the capital of which was at one time fixed at Uraiyúr, a suburb of the present city of Trichinopoli. Before the close of the 16th century, the whole country fell under the sway of the Náyakkans. The founder of the dynasty was Viswanátha (the son of an officer of the King of Vijayanagar), who established himself as king of MADURA in 1559, and subjugated Trichinopoli soon afterwards. The greater portion of the fort of Trichinopoli, and most of the city itself, were built in his reign. The Náyakkans ruled Trichinopoli and Madura from 1559 to 1740. The greatest of them was the famous Tirumala Náyakkan, who died in 1659. His grandson, Choka Náyakkan, removed the capital of the kingdom from Madura to Trichinopoli, where he raised the building known as the Nawáb's Palace.

Chanda Sáhib, a relation of the Muhammadan Nawáb of Arcot, obtained possession of Trichinopoli in 1740 by deceiving Mínákshi, the widow of the last Náyakkan. In the contest between the French and English in the south of India between 1749 and 1763, the French espoused the cause of Chanda Sáhib, and the English that of Muhammad Alí, afterwards Nawáb of Arcot. After his defeat at the battle of Ambúr, the latter prince fled to Trichinopoli, where he was besieged by Chanda Sáhib, the French, and the Maráthás, who took up their position in the island of Srírangam. It was to draw off a portion of the besieging force from Trichinopoli that Clive, then an officer in the garrison there, undertook his famous expedition to Arcot. This move had the desired effect, as it obliged Chanda Sáhib to send a large number of his troops to join in the siege of that city. Shortly afterwards, a detachment was sent under Major Lawrence, through Tanjore District, to relieve Trichinopoli. The French attempted to intercept it, but without success; while Captain Dalton almost immediately afterwards successfully attacked a body of men sent by Dupleix to reinforce the army in Srírangam, and prevented it joining the besieging force. On this, Chanda Sáhib's troops deserted him, he was himself put to death, and the siege of Trichinopoli was virtually raised. The principal operations during this portion of the war were carried on in Srírangam island, and in the villages along the old road from Madras to Trichinopoli.

On Chanda Sáhib's death, the General of the Mysore army, who had up to that time assisted Muhammad Alí, claimed Trichinopoli as the reward of his services. His application to be put in possession of the city was refused, and he retreated to Srírangam, and, aided by the French, laid siege a second time to Trichinopoli, attempting to reduce the place by famine. Major Lawrence was sent to the assistance of the besieged force; and shortly after his arrival, the French in Srírangam were reinforced by a large detachment sent by Dupleix. On

this, the besiegers moved their camp and took up a position a little beyond the present racecourse, with a view to intercept all supplies brought into the city. Here they were attacked and utterly defeated by Major Lawrence in the battle of the Golden Rock. After this, Major Lawrence went to Tanjore to obtain reinforcements from the Maráthá Rájá of that place. On his return, the French unsuccessfully tried to intercept him as he marched towards the city through the open plain lying to the south-east, not far from the site of the present central jail. In the battle of the Sugar-loaf Rock, fought not very far from the same place, the French and their allies were again defeated. The only other incident in the actions round Trichinopoli of any interest was the unsuccessful attempt made to surprise the city by a night attack on Dalton battery, situated north-west of the fort, which is now almost the only undemolished portion of the old fortifications. A graphic account of all these events is given in Orme's History. The siege of Trichinopoli was at last raised on the conclusion of a provisional treaty between the French and English in 1754. War, however, broke out again almost immediately. But the interest in this portion of the conflict centres in the siege of Fort St. George, and Sir Eyre Coote's victories; and the skirmishes that took place round Trichinopoli were insignificant and unimportant. By the treaty of Paris, concluded in 1763, Muhammad Alí was recognised as Nawáb of the Karnátik. In the wars that followed soon afterwards with Haidar Alí and Tipú, the District of Trichinopoli was devastated more than once; but it was not the scene of any of the important actions that were fought.

Population.—The earliest attempt made to ascertain the population of the District was in 1821–22, when it was stated to be 788,196. In 1836–37, the population was returned at 552,477, or more than one-third less the figure arrived at fifteen years previously. The methods of these early attempts are so untrustworthy, that it would be rash to assume that the population of the District really did decrease between 1822 and 1837. In 1851–52, the population was returned at 709,196; in 1866–67, at 1,006,826. These figures are also untrustworthy. In 1871, the first detailed Census was taken, and returns approaching to accuracy were obtained. The results showed 588,134 males and 612,274 females; total, 1,200,408.

The last Census taken in 1881 disclosed a total population of 1,215,033; occupying 201,180 houses, in 5 towns and 1480 villages. The total increase of population on the figures of 1871 was 14,625, or 1·22 per cent. Trichinopoli was not one of the so-called famine Districts in 1876–78, but it suffered from the general effects of the famine pressure. Number of unoccupied houses, 33,022; average number of persons per village or town, 818; persons per occupied house, 6·0; persons per square mile, 341; villages or towns per square mile, 0·417; occupied houses

per square mile, 56. Classified according to sex, there were—males 586,434, and females 628,599. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 226,407, and girls 228,940; total children, 455,347, or 37·5 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 359,971, and females 399,572; total adults, 759,543, or 62·5 per cent. Of 56 males and 87 females, the age was not stated.

The religious division showed the following results: — Hindus, 1,119,434, or 92·13 per cent. of the total population; Christians, 61,440, or 5·06 per cent.; Muhammadans, 34,104, or 2·81 per cent.; Buddhists, 33; Jains, 6; and 'others,' 16. Since 1871, the Hindus have gained 0·33 per cent.; the Christians, 18 per cent.; and the Muhammadans, 6·49 per cent.

Distributed according to caste, the Hindus include — Vanniyans (labourers and cultivators), 378,442, or 33·87 per cent.; Vellálars (agriculturists), 193,001, or 17·24 per cent.; Sátánis (mixed castes), 139,132, or 12·42 per cent.; Pariahs (outcastes proper), 133,613, or 11·93 per cent.; Idaiyars (shepherds), 63,840, or 5·71 per cent.; Kaikalars (weavers), 35,328, or 3·15 per cent.; Bráhmans (priestly caste), 34,110, or 3·04 per cent.; Kammálars (artisans), 29,566, or 2·65 per cent.; Shettis (traders), 17,872, or 1·59 per cent.; Ambattans (barbers), 13,884, or 1·24 per cent.; Vánnáns (washermen), 12,310, or 1·09 per cent.; Shembadavans (fishermen), 10,832, or 0·96 per cent.; Kushavans (potters), 5996, or 0·53 per cent.; Shánáns (toddy-drawers), 5600, or 0·50 per cent.; Kshattriyas (warrior caste), 2057, or 0·19 per cent.; Kannakans (writers), 247; and other outcastes and castes that follow no special occupation, 43,604.

The Christians sub-divided into sects were—Roman Catholics, 57,304; Protestants (undistinguished by sect), 1996; members of the Church of England, 671; Lutherans, 345; Syrians, 179; Presbyterians, 23; Wesleyans, 11; Baptists, 5; Nasrani, 1; 'others,' 11; and of 894 the sect was not stated. According to race—Europeans and Americans, 177; Eurasians, 371; Natives, 58,261; and the nationality was not stated of 2631. Of the native converts—Roman Catholics number 54,747; the different Protestant sects, 2664; the sect was not stated of 850. The District formed part of the great Jesuit mission of Madura, founded in the beginning of the 17th century. Political events in Europe almost deprived the mission of priests from 1759 to 1837.

The Muhammadan population consisted of—Labbays, 2019; Shaikhs, 888; Pathans, 310; Sayyids, 238; Arabs, 115; Mughals, 27; and 'others,' 30,507. According to sect—Sunnís number 29,562; Shiás, 381; Wáhábís, 23; Faráizis, 2; not stated, 4136.

The most important towns in the District are TRICHINOPOLI city (84,449); SRIRANGAM, famous for its Vishnu temple (19,773); Turaiyúr (6637); Mahádánapuram (6191); Udayárpálaiyam (5703); Ariyalúr

(5781); Kurumbalúr (5456). In many cases, however, those so-called towns are merely clusters of hamlets, often containing only a few houses each, which have been grouped together for purposes of revenue administration. Trichinopoli and Srírangam are the only municipalities in the District. The receipts of these in 1883–84 were £8675 and £2023 respectively.

Of the 1485 towns and villages in Trichinopoli District, 241 contained in 1881 less than two hundred inhabitants; 453 between two and five hundred; 426 between five hundred and one thousand; 278 between one and two thousand; 55 between two and three thousand; 25 between three and five thousand; 5 between five and ten thousand; 1 between fifteen and twenty thousand; and 1 more than fifty thousand.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 distributed the male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 18,629; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 1843; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 7457; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 300,732; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 57,697; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 200,076. About 52·5 per cent. were returned as workers, on whom the remaining 47·5 per cent. of the population depend. Of males 67·97 per cent., and of females 38·20 per cent., were workers.

The principal language of the District is Tamil. It is spoken by 1,018,200 persons, or 83·8 per cent. of its population. Telugu is spoken by 147,182; and Kánarese by 26,921 persons.

Agriculture.—Agriculture in 1881 supported 464,310 persons, or 38 per cent. of the population. The area cultivated in that year was —Government *ráyatwári* lands, 1248 square miles; *inám* or grants held rent-free, or at a low quit-rent, 176 square miles; *zamíndári* lands, paying a *peshkash* or a light quit-rent, 222 square miles. The amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses paid by cultivators, amounted to £212,464; the average rent, including local rates and cesses, was 4s. o¼d. per acre of cultivated land. The returns of 1883–84 showed that the total area of Government *ráyatwári* lands was 1,627,738 acres; and of *inám* lands, 233,187 acres. Of the Government *ráyatwári* lands, 816,996 acres were cultivated (of which 53,950 yielded two crops); of the *inám* lands, 120,646 acres were cultivated (of which 3075 yielded two crops). Total cultivated area, 937,642 acres (of which 57,025 yielded two crops). The cultivable, but not cultivated, area of Government *ráyatwári* and *inám* lands was 541,156 acres. Total area assessed in 1883–84, 1,478,798 acres; total

assessment, £207,964. No returns are available for the *zamíndárí* lands.

The chief crops are rice, *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare), *ragí* (Eleusine coracana), *kambu* (Pennisetum typhoideum), considered the staple food of the District, *varagu* (Panicum miliaceum), *dál* (Cajanus indicus), horse-gram (Dolichos biflorus), *ulundu* (Phaseolus Mungo), cotton, tobacco, indigo, sugar-cane, cocoa-nut, plantain, areca-nut, chillies. The staple crop in the irrigated portions of the District, which lie along both banks of the Káveri (Cauvery) and Coleroon, is rice. In the unirrigated parts, *cholam*, *kambu*, and *varagu* are grown in almost equal quantities. There are two main varieties of rice in the District, known as *kár* and *pishánam* or *sambá*. The former is an inferior description of grain, consumed as a rule by the poor. It is usually sown in November and December, and harvested in March and April; but it is also sometimes sown in July and August, and harvested in November and December. *Sambá* is a superior sort of rice used by the better classes. When grown as a single crop, it is sown in July and harvested in December; and when as a second crop, often after a first crop of *kár*, it is sown in November and harvested in April. Rice is sometimes sown broadcast; sometimes in seed-beds and transplanted afterwards.

The out-turn of an acre of the best rice land is between 30 and 40 *kalams*, 30 *kalams* being equal to 1 ton 11 cwts. 11 lbs. On land of this description, a second crop, averaging about half the first, can ordinarily be raised. The irrigated lands along the rivers are as a rule owned by men who themselves take no part in the cultivation; but leave it entirely to labourers (*pallars*), who remain on the same land from generation to generation, and are paid by receiving a share of the produce. Bullocks and buffaloes are the only animals used in agriculture. In 1883–84, the agricultural live stock consisted of—buffaloes, 77,786; bullocks, 192,311; cows, 230,175; donkeys, 2381; horses and ponies, 645; goats, 265,838; sheep, 647,441; camels, 2; and elephants, 5: dead stock—ploughs, 107,311; and carts, 16,437.

Agricultural labourers are generally paid in grain. From 1881–82 to 1883–84, their money wages averaged 10s. 7½d. a month. The wages of common masons, carpenters, and smiths averaged £1, 10s. 3d. a month. The average price of 'second sort' rice during the five years ending 1874–75 was 16·4 imperial *sers* for 2s.; in 1875–76, 15·3; in 1876–77 (famine year), 11·0; in 1877–78 (also affected by famine), 7·4; in 1878–79, 8·6 *sers* for 2s. Similarly the price of *kambu* (the staple food) in the five years ending 1874 varied from 28 to 39; in 1875, from 26 to 34; in 1876, from 11 to 31; in 1877, from 8 to 20; in 1878, from 11 to 20 *sers* for 2s. An imperial *ser* equals 2·2046 lbs. In 1883–84, the price of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. was—rice, 4s. 9d.; *ragi*, 2s. 2d.; *cholam*, 1s. 10¾d.; *kambu*, 1s. 5d.; *varagu*, 1s. 7d.; wheat,

7s. 11½d.; pulses varied from 2s. 3d. to 5s. 8½d.; salt, 5s. 3¼d.; sugar, 10s. 2d.; gingelly, 11s. 4d.; oil-seeds, 5s. 4½d.; indigo, £8.

Natural Calamities, etc.—The District does not suffer to any great extent from either blight or flood. When it first came under British rule, the irrigated portions of the District were constantly flooded by the Káveri (Cauvery) and Coleroon overflowing their banks. These rivers are now well embanked, and such disasters are almost unknown. The District is not especially liable to famine, as the rivers just named, on which the greater portion of the 'wet' lands are dependent, seldom if ever fail. The dry crops are of course as uncertain here as elsewhere; but owing to the large extent of river-irrigated land, Trichinopoli is not very largely dependent on them for its food supply. The last famine was that of 1876–77. The distress which then prevailed was not due to failure of crops, although these had been deficient for two years, especially in the unirrigated tract, but to a rise of prices caused by exportation of grain to other Districts. The statement given above shows how prices rose during the famine.

Communications, etc.—In 1883–84 there were 628 miles of imperial and local roads. Trichinopoli is on the whole well provided with means of communication. There are no navigable canals. The South Indian Railway traverses the District from east to west, running through Trichinopoli and Kulitalai *táluks* (55¼ miles). The southern extension of this line runs from Trichinopoli city through the south-eastern portion of Kulitalai *táluk*, and thence into Madura (37¾ miles). In 1883, these lines carried to and from the ten stations in the District 1,010,521 passengers and 58,225 tons of goods.

Trade, Manufactures, etc.—The most important local industries are weaving and the manufacture of cigars. The latter is almost entirely confined to Trichinopoli city, whence a large number of cigars are sent to all parts of India. The tobacco used is chiefly imported from Dindigal, that of local growth being coarse and inferior. The goldsmiths of Trichinopoli also are of considerable repute. Trichinopoli city is the principal seat of trade; but there are numerous fairs all over the District, held, as a rule, weekly, for the sale of grain, cattle, etc. The principal exports are grain of all kinds, especially rice; the imports, tobacco and salt.

Administration.—Under the Muhammadan Government, the revenue in the irrigated parts of the District was collected by an equal division of the produce between Government and cultivators; and in the unirrigated parts, a money assessment was levied according to the nature of the soil. When Trichinopoli passed into the hands of the English (in 1800), money payments were introduced everywhere; and, with a few exceptions, one-half of the produce was taken as the share of the Government. Up to the introduction of the revised settlement in 1864,

few changes were made; but the assessment was from time to time reduced. The whole of the District was first surveyed and the lands classified according to the quality of the soil, proximity to markets, etc. Revised rates of assessment were then introduced, ranging from 2s. to 15s. an acre on 'wet' land, and 6d. to 7s. on 'dry,' the mass of 'wet' lands being charged from 5s. to 12s., and of the 'dry' not more than 2s. The amount of the assessment for the year before the settlement was £166,925, and for the year in which it was introduced, £119,442. In the following seven years, however, the land revenue increased by about £30,000, principally owing to an increase of 24 per cent. in the extent of land cultivated. The total net revenue of the District in 1801–02 was £148,952; in 1860–61, it had risen to £163,557; in 1870–71, to £192,963; and in 1883–84, to £197,087. The land in 1860–61 contributed £150,445 of the revenue; in 1870–71, £163,363; and in 1883–84, £162,575. The number of estates upon the rent-roll of the District in 1850–51 was 68,255; in 1860–61, 102,277; in 1870–71, 140,997; and in 1882–83, 148,417. The average land revenue paid by each estate in 1850–51 was £2; in 1860–61, £1, 8s.; in 1870–71, 19s.; and in 1882–83, £1, 0s. 3⅜d.

For administrative purposes, Trichinopoli District is divided into 5 *táluks* in three divisions, under the Collector, Head Assistant Collector, and a Deputy Collector. All these are magistrates, and have under them 10 sub-magistrates (5 of whom are *tahsíldárs* in charge of *táluks*). There was formerly a cantonment magistrate at Trichinopoli (the only military station), but the office was abolished in 1879. The District and Sessions Judge has under him 3 District *munsifs* for civil suits. There is now an additional District *munsif* also. The village head-men have petty judicial powers, civil and criminal. The police force numbers 779 men and 19 officers. The District contains 1 central, 1 District, and 10 subsidiary jails. The central jail is near Trichinopoli, and receives prisoners from all parts of Madras, from Burma, and the Straits. The average daily number of prisoners in 1883 was, in the central jail, 562; District jail, 93; subsidiary jails, 30. The cost per prisoner was £8, 10s. in the central jail, and £9, 4s. in the District jail.

In 1883–84, there were in the District 523 schools under inspection, with 10,830 pupils. Most of these are aided by grants from local and municipal funds. There are still a number of village (*payál*) schools, for which no statistics are available. The Census of 1881 returned 23,674 males and 1182 females as under instruction, besides 73,977 males and 3251 females able to read and write but not under instruction. No newspapers are published in the District. There are four printing presses, one the Government District press, the others owned by natives of Trichinopoli. In all, work is turned out in both English and Tamil.

Medical Aspects, etc.—Trichinopoli is one of the hottest and driest Districts in Madras, though free from extremes of heat and cold. In the high unirrigated parts there is much sun-glare and reflected and radiated heat, and at times hot winds with clouds of dust. At certain seasons the atmosphere is very sultry and enervating. Both monsoons are felt, but the heaviest rainfall is brought by the north-east monsoon. From 1866–67 to 1875–76, the annual rainfall averaged 34·08 inches. In 1876–77 (famine year), the rainfall was only 23·04 inches; but from 1877–78, in which it rose again to 37·89 inches, to 1883–84, the annual average was 35·12 inches. The average mean monthly temperature for the eleven years ending 1881 was—January, 75·8° F.; February, 78·6°; March, 83·1°; April, 87·1°; May, 87·7°; June, 86·3°; July, 85·1°; August, 83·8°; September, 82·8°; October, 80·6°; November, 78·0°; December, 75·8° F. The annual mean was 82·1° F. The climate is equable, and it is probably for this reason not unfavourable to the health of either natives or Europeans. For the five years ending 1876, the reported death-rate was 19·7 per thousand. In 1877 (famine year), it rose to 47·5, but in 1878 it improved considerably, being only 24·6. From 1879 to 1883 the average rate was 19·8 per thousand. [For further information regarding Trichinopoli District, see *Manual of the Trichinopoli District in the Presidency of Madras*, compiled by Mr. Lewis Moore, C.S. (Madras Government Press, 1878). Also see the *Madras Census Report* of 1881, and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of the Madras Presidency from 1880 to 1884.]

Trichinopoli.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency. The *táluk* is divided into almost equal portions by the river Káveri (Cauvery), which crosses its entire length from west to east. The portions of the *táluk* along the Káveri are irrigated by numerous channels from that river, and are very fertile. The remainder is, for the most part, unirrigated, and, in general, sandy. Despite a few hills, it is, on the whole, very flat. The soil of the greater portion of the fields irrigated by the Káveri and its channels has been enriched by alluvial deposit, and is most productive. The South Indian Railway runs across the *táluk* from west to east. The same railway also enters the *táluk* at its south-western extremity, and runs through it as far as Trichinopoli junction station. Area, 486 square miles. Population (1881) 335,518, namely, males 161,169, and females 174,349; occupying 56.862 houses, in 2 towns and 359 villages. Hindus number 281,220; Christians, 36,990; Muhammadans, 17,262; and 'others,' 46. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 3 civil and 4 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 20; regular police, 471 men. Land revenue, £43,800.

Trichinopoli (*Tirusiráppalli*, 'The City of the Three-headed *Rákshasa*').—City in Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10°

49′ 45″ N., long. 78° 44′ 21″ E. Population (1881) 84,449, namely, males 41,250, and females 43,199; occupying 13,630 houses. Hindus number 61,296; Muhammadans, 11,993; Christians, 11,155; and 'others,' 5.

The administrative head-quarters and principal town of the District, a garrison town and municipality, with 2 railway stations. It is situated on the right bank of the river Káveri (Cauvery), about 56 miles from the sea. Trichinopoli is a place of much historic interest, having been the scene of many well-known sieges, etc. (For an account of these, see the foregoing article on TRICHINOPOLI DISTRICT.) The city consists of the fort, situated about a mile south of the river; the military cantonment (or rather the civil and military station), and 17 villages and hamlets, which are included in the municipal limits. Of these, the best known is Uraiyúr, which is the oldest part of the city, and was at one time the capital of the Chola kingdom. It has been identified with Ὀφθουρα, mentioned by Ptolemy (130 A.D.).

Viswanátha, who died in 1573, the founder of the Náyak dynasty of Madura, fortified Trichinopoli, and built a palace. One of his descendants, Choka Náyak, who died in 1682, built what is now called the Nawáb's palace. The fort is rectangular, measuring about a mile by half a mile. Formerly, it was surrounded by ramparts and a ditch. The entire space enclosed within the fort is densely populated. The streets in this part are narrow, but on the whole regular. Inside the fort is the Trichinopoli Rock, a mass of gneiss, which rises, like many others in the District, abruptly out of the plain to a height of 273 feet above the level of the street at its foot. The ascent to this rock (*Tayumánaswámi-malai*) is partly by a covered stone staircase, and partly by steps cut in the rock itself. Upon it is a Siva temple, and at the top a small temple dedicated to Pillaiyár (Ganapati). Every year (August) a festival at this temple attracts a crowd of pilgrims. In 1849, owing to some confusion in descending, a panic occurred, and at least 250 persons lost their lives in the crush. A few hundred yards to the south of the Rock is the Nawáb's palace, which was restored in 1873 at a cost of £3681, and is now used for various courts and offices. Between the Rock and the north-west or main guard gate of the fort is a handsome *teppakulam* (raft-tank), in the houses round which the European officers lived when Trichinopoli was first a military station. One of these houses is called Clive's, but it is doubtful if he ever lived there. Formerly, the troops were stationed within the fort, next in Uraiyúr, and afterwards removed to the present lines, 1½ mile south of the fort. The garrison consists at present (1884) of 2 Native infantry regiments.

The municipality, established in 1866, has effected great improvements. It has removed the old ramparts; the moat, formerly a nuisance and source of sickness, has been filled up and laid out as a boulevard.

A municipal market was built in 1868, which yields a large profit. Street lighting and sanitary measures have also been introduced. In 1883–84, the municipal income was £8675, of which £6046 was derived from taxation (*i.e.* about 1s. 5d. per head). Trichinopoli is well known for its cigars, and for its peculiar and beautiful gold jewellery. The city contains, besides military hospitals, a municipal hospital, a meteorological observatory, the central and District jails (*see* District article). Trichinopoli contains over 8000 native Roman Catholics, and is the residence of a bishop (the Vicar-Apostolic of Madura). There are several Catholic churches, two of which are large and important. Heber, the Protestant Bishop of Calcutta, died here in 1826, and is buried in St. John's Church. The Lutherans, the Wesleyans, and the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel have missions. The high school of the last-named in 1876 had 664 pupils, and was the most important in the District; but in 1883–84 there were only 136 on the rolls. Another college (Roman Catholic) called St. Joseph's, affiliated with Madras University, was opened on the 18th January 1883. The population includes a large number of the *kallar* (thief) caste; and hence, notwithstanding the police, the European residents are under the necessity of employing watchmen to protect their houses.

Trichúr (*Tirushavaperúr*).—Town in the Trichúr District of Cochin State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 32′ N., long. 76° 15′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 10,094. A very ancient town, attributed by local tradition to Parasuráma; it was taken by Haidar Alí in 1776. There is a small palace belonging to the Rájá, public library, school, and fine temple. The fortifications, now out of repair, were erected in 1774. The *zilá* or District court and jail are here, as well as a Roman Catholic church, and an establishment of the Church Missionary Society. Active trade with Pálghát and Cochin, Trichúr being the head of water-carriage on the Cochin backwater.

Tríkotá.—Mountain in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Northern India, forming part of the range bounding the valley of Srínagar on the south. Lat. 32° 58′ N., long. 74° 37′ E. (Thornton). The summit is covered with snow almost throughout the year. According to Thornton, on its northern flank a spring gushes from the rock in regular pulsations—hot in winter, but cooled by intermixture of the melting snows during the summer months. The Hindus regard this spring as holy, and pay pilgrimages to it from considerable distances.

Trimbak (or more correctly *Tryambak*, 'the three-eyed,' a name of Mahádeo).—Town and municipality in Násik District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 19° 54′ 50″ N., and long. 73° 33′ 50″ E., 20 miles south-west of Násik town. Population (1881) 3839, namely, Hindus, 3684; Muhammadans, 130; Jains, 16; and Christians, 9.

Municipal revenue (1883–84), £274; incidence of taxation, 9¾d. per head.

Trimbak fort, which is 4248 feet above the sea, and about 1800 above the village, is on a scarp so high and precipitous as to be impregnable by any army however numerous or well served with artillery. The hill is 10 miles round the base, and about 4 miles round the top. The scarp, which varies in height from two to four hundred of perpendicular rock, surrounds the hill in every part, leaving only two gateways. The chief gateway through which the garrison received their stores and provisions is on the south. The north gateway is only a single gate, the passage to which is by narrow steps cut out of the rock, and wide enough for only one person at a time. Besides the gateways, there are a few towers and works on different parts of the hill, but their position does not seem to have been chosen with a view to increase the strength of the fortress. In 1857, the Bráhmans of Trimbak played a seditious part; at their instigation, a party of Bhíls and Thákurs attacked the Trimbak treasury on the night of 5th December 1857.

Trimbak is a place of Hindu pilgrimage; and besides being visited by all the pilgrims who go to Násik, has a special fair in honour of Trimbakeswar Mahádeo, held on the occasion of the planet Jupiter entering the sign Leo, which event happens generally once every twelve years. The festival held in September 1872 was attended by thousands of pilgrims from all parts of India.

Trimohiní.—Market village in Jessor District, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 54′ N., and long. 89° 10′ E., 5 miles west of Kesabpur (of which it is in reality little more than an out-station), at the point where the Bhadrá river formerly left the Kabadak. Trimohiní is a considerable market-place, Chandra being the name of the village. Formerly it was an important seat of the sugar trade, and contained several refineries, all now closed; at present it is only a depôt for the purchase of sugar for export, and not for its manufacture. A *melá* or fair is held here every March, at the time of the *Báruní* or Bathing Festival. Half a mile from Trimohiní is a small village called Mírzánagar, the residence of the Faujdár or military governor of Jessor in Muhammadan times, which was stated in 1815 to be one of the three largest towns in the District, but is now an insignificant hamlet.

Trinomalai.—*Táluk* and town in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TIRUVANNAMALAI.

Tripasúr (*Tirupasúr*).—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras. Lat. 13° 8′ 20″ N., long. 79° 55′ E. Population (1871) 2847, inhabiting 420 houses. Tripasúr was formerly a considerable cantonment and a station for cadets in the East India Company's service, and more recently for pensioned European soldiers, for whom there are the necessary cottage-quarters and a school. All these buildings, as

well as a Hindu temple, lie within the fort, the remains of the stone walls of which still exist. This fort was formerly valuable as a protection to the adjacent country from the ravages of the Pálegárs. It was captured by Sir Eyre Coote in 1781.

Tripatty.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TIRUPATI.

Tripatúr.—*Táluk* and town in Salem District, Madras Presidency. —*See* TIRUPATUR.

Triplicane.—Suburb of MADRAS CITY (*q.v.*).

Tripunathorai.—Town in Kannayannúr District, Cochin State, Madras Presidency, and the usual residence of the Rájá. Lat. 9° 56′ 40″ N., long. 76° 23′ 19″ E. Population (1872) 8493, residing in 2000 houses; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. Tripunathorai is 8 miles east of Cochin, and 5¾ miles from Ernakollam, the official and commercial capital of the State. The fort, the recently built palace of the Rájá, and the residences of members of the reigning family, are the chief features of the town, which is buried in cocoa-nut palms, and cut off from easy access by tidal creeks, swamps, rice-fields, and heavy sand. The fortifications inclose rather than defend the buildings within them. Curious specimens of local architecture may be discovered in the palace and other buildings, illustrating the local manners and customs. Inside the fort is the Rájá's own temple, a small *bázár* inhabited by Bráhmans, Náirs, and Konkánis, and a large *utpara* (feeding-house) and tank. The *bázár* or *pettai* (pettah) outside the fort is small, and, as is usual in Cochin State, inhabited by Christians (Roman Catholics), who have a small church. It is only lately that a cart-road has been made to Ernakollam, although the water communication is tedious and circuitous. Improved communications increase the risk of pollution by the access of low-caste intruders, and endanger the aristocratic retirement which is the most noticeable characteristic of the place.

Trisrota.—River of Bengal.—*See* TISTA.

Tritani.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TIRUTANI.

Trivadi.—Town in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SETTIPATTADAI.

Trivandrum, North.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Population (1875) 50,486; (1881) 51,649, namely, males 25,940, and females 25,709; occupying 10,549 houses, in 38 *karas* or villages. Hindus number 43,532; Christians, 4469; and Muhammadans, 3648. Of the Christians, 3173 are Roman Catholics, 1021 Syrians, and 275 Protestants.

Trivandrum, South.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Population (1875) 49,927; (1881) 51,337, namely,

males 25,693, and females 25,644; occupying 10,846 houses, in 50 *karas* or villages. Hindus number 40,925; Muhammadans, 5911; and Christians, 4501. Of the Christians, 4300 are Roman Catholics, 129 Protestants, and 72 Syrians.

Trivandrum (*Tiruvánantapuram*).—Town in Trivandrum *táluk*, Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 29′ 3″ N., long. 76° 59′ 9″ E. Population (1881) 37,652; or including the fort, 41,173, occupying 8278 houses. Trivandrum is the capital of Travancore, and the residence of the Mahárájá and his court. As one of the chief centres of an ancient social system peculiar to the Malayálam country, it has much of special interest. The neighbourhood is very picturesque. The town lies about 2 miles from the sea, where a flat tract of sand, and of marsh partially reclaimed, meets the undulating country which rises to the Western Ghâts. The Karumanai river and several minor watercourses find their way to the sea in the immediate vicinity; and as the outfall is imperfect, the lower parts of the town are unhealthy. The drainage is bad, and the ventilation is impeded by closely planted cocoa-nut palms and other dense vegetation. Several fine public buildings, country houses of the Mahárájá and princes, most of the European and many of the best native houses, are, however, built on isolated laterite hills or plateaux, which rise from 50 to nearly 200 feet above sea-level; and these enjoy pure air, and command charming views over the surrounding country. The fort and a great part of the crowded native town is on the low level. The fort, which is of no military value, is surrounded by a high wall, which, however useful for defence in former days, now only serves to keep out persons of low caste.

Within the fort are the palaces of the Mahárájá and of the princes and princesses of the ruling family, and the great temple of Padmanábha ('the lotus-naveled,' a name of Vishnu in the Malayálam country). These buildings are picturesque in their irregularity, and display the local characteristics of high-pitched gables, projecting ridges, deep eaves, overhanging balconies, verandahs with massive wooden pillars and elaborate wood-carving, testifying alike to the profusion of timber in the State and the skill of its artisans. The temple is of great antiquity, and is held in the highest regard. Popular tradition, which seems to have good foundation, declares that the rise of the town on this site, and its selection as the capital of Travancore, are due to the pre-existence and sanctity of the shrine. The temple enjoys a land revenue of £7500, and, unlike many temples in Travancore, is more or less independent of the State. The abandonment of the fort as a residence has been often pressed on successive Mahárájás for sanitary reasons, but without effect, owing to old associations and Bráhmanical influences. The frequent religious ceremonies required

of Travancore princes, which can only be performed with efficacy at the shrine of Padmanábha, will probably long necessitate the usual residence of the Mahárájá in the immediate neighbourhood of the temple.

A rude mint, which coins hardly anything but copper, and a few other offices are still kept up in the fort, but most of the public offices have been moved to better situations. Trivandrum is the head-quarters of the British Resident, an officer who is the medium of communication between the Madras Government and the Mahárájá, and who is consulted and entitled to advise on questions of importance affecting the administration. The military cantonment, in which are the arsenal, hospital, and offices of the Náir brigade, with the houses of several European officers and others, is well situated north of the town. The brigade is a force of about 1400 men, chiefly Náirs, maintained by the Travancore State for purposes of display and occasional police duty. It is commanded by 3 European officers of the Madras Army appointed by the British Government. The large establishments of the Díwán, who, next to the Mahárájá, is the head of the administration, with the *sadr* court and other departments, are accommodated in a handsome range of buildings of classic style, erected about fifteen years ago. Trivandrum contains a medical school, and is liberally supplied with hospitals, which are under the general superintendence of the *darbár* (court) physician, a European officer. They consist of a civil or general hospital, a charity hospital to which is attached a small-pox hospital, lunatic asylum, lying-in hospital, and jail hospital, besides 4 dispensaries. The Mahárájá's college, completed about twelve years ago, is a commodious and handsome building. It is conducted by a European principal, with a staff of qualified European and native masters, and takes a high place among the educational institutions of Southern India.

The observatory was built by the Mahárájá in 1836; and for many years observations of much scientific interest were recorded. The first astronomer was John Caldecott (1837–49), and the second Mr. J. A. Broun, F.R.S. (1852–65). The observations of the latter were chiefly magnetic and meteorological; and in 1854 he established a branch observatory on the summit of Agastyamalai hill (6200 feet above the sea). But in 1865, it was considered that the expenditure was greater than the State finances warranted, and the establishment was broken up. The main observatory is now under native management. The building, which was planned and erected by Captain Horsley, of the Madras Engineers, is beautifully situated on one of the laterite hills above mentioned, 195 feet above sea-level, and is one of the favourite unofficial residences of the Mahárájá. But perhaps the most

interesting modern building is the Napier Museum, which has been erected in the public gardens, on plans embracing the prominent features of Malayálam architecture, on the principle of utilizing to the utmost local materials, practically and ornamentally. Out of the four jails in Travancore, two are at Trivandrum, the central jail and a subsidiary jail. The chief of the 45 *utparas* (feeding-houses) maintained by the State is also at Trivandrum, and is known as the *ágárasála*. The Travancore State *Gazette*, in English and Malayálam, is published weekly at Trivandrum. The only other newspaper in Travancore, the *Travancore Times*, is published thrice a month at Nagarkovil. The Government press was established about fifty years ago, when the Trivandrum English school came into existence. The British Indian Government telegraph office at Trivandrum is kept up at the wish of the Travancore State, by which it is subsidized.

Trivandrum, though not a commercial centre of importance, or specially noted for any particular industry, has greatly improved of late years. The local roads are numerous and excellent, and very useful communications with adjoining Districts have been opened during the last ten years. There is no regular port; the surf on the coast is high, and the few vessels which touch have to lie out a long way from the shore. A succession of canals running along the coast to the north connects the local backwaters, and with only one break puts the town in direct communication with the great backwater system of northern Travancore and Cochin and with the Madras Railway. The break is at Warkalli, about 20 miles north of Trivandrum, where high laterite headlands abut on the sea. Heavy works were begun some years ago to remove this obstacle, and by open cuttings and tunnels to complete the continuity of the water-way. These works are still in progress. A railway to the south, passing the historic Arambúli lines into Tinnevelli, and joining the South Indian Railway, is under consideration.

Trombay (*Turmbhen*).—Port in the Salsette Sub-division of Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay. Lat. 19° N., long. 73° 4′ E. Situated about 3 miles east of Bombay city, Trombay is a hamlet with a few huts, post and sea-customs offices, a salt store, and a ruined Portuguese church, with a well-preserved vaulted chapel, 22 feet long, 22½ feet high, and 22 wide. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1881–82 returned at £53,837—imports £3483, and exports £50,354. The trade in 1881–82 was—imports £2805, and exports £97,432.

Trombay. — Customs division of ports, Thána District, Bombay Presidency, consisting of Bhiwandi, Bhándup, Kalyán, Mahul, Thána, and Trombay. Average annual value of trade of the Customs division for the five years ending 1883–84 returned at £613,231—imports

£269,685, and exports £343,546. The trade in 1883–84 was—imports £251,706, and exports £347,205; total, £598,911.

Tsam-bay-rún (*Sa-bay-yun*).—Township in Bassein District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* SABAY-YUN.

Tsan-pu (*Sangpu*). — River of Tibet, beyond the limits of India, but forming the upper waters of the BRAHMAPUTRA. The Tsan-pu rises on the northern side of the Himálayas, in about lat. 31° N., and long. 83° E., not far from the sources of the Indus and the Sutlej; thence it flows in an easterly direction through the whole length of Tibet, passing near the capital, Lhása. The greater portion of its course has been explored; but an absolute blank in our information still meets us when we attempt to follow it through the eastern hill barrier of Tibet. It is, however, now agreed that the Tsan-pu takes the name of the Dihang, under which appellation it enters Assam and becomes one of the three swift rivers which unite to form the Brahmaputra in lat. 27° 70′ N., and long. 95° 50′ E. D'Anville, Dalrymple, and certain French geographers were rather disposed to regard it as the upper channel of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Indeed, in Dalrymple's map accompanying Syme's *Embassy to Ava*, the Tsan-pu is shown as one of the sources of the Irawadi; but their point of union was undefined. (Some notice of the more general aspects of the Tsan-pu will be found in the article BRAHMAPUTRA.) The lower course of the Tsan-pu is still one of the unsettled problems of geography. It flows through territories inhabited by savage tribes, who are sufficiently under the influence of Tibet to resent all advances on the part of Europeans, and have ere now murdered adventurous travellers. The country is also extremely difficult to traverse, being obstructed by rocky precipices and narrow chasms, where none but the practised mountaineer could make his way.

Tsan-rwe (or *San-ywe*).—Southern township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* SAN-YWE.

Tshan-daw (or *San-daw*).—A small pagoda situated amid the hills on the left bank of the Sandoway river, Sandoway District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma.—*See* SAN-DAW.

Tshee-goon (or *Tshigun*). — Village in Henzada District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* SI-GUN.

Tshwa (or *Swa*).—River in Taung-ngu District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma.—*See* SWA.

Tsit-toung (or *Sittaung*).—Township, town, and river in Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division.—*See* SITTAUNG.

Tukreswarí (from Tukra = a hill, and Iswarí = the goddess Durgá).—Hill in Habrághát *parganá*, Goálpárá District, Assam, on the summit of which is a temple dedicated to Durgá, built by a former Rájá of Bijni. Its construction indicates great engineering

skill on the part of the architect. It is frequented by pilgrims from all parts of India, particularly by Sanyásís or religious mendicants. The hill is tenanted by a colony of mendicants, of whom a man and a woman, under the name of the king and queen, are held peculiarly sacred.

Tulamba.—Ancient town and ruins in Múltán (Mooltan) District, Punjab.—*See* TALAMBA.

Tularám-Senápati's Country.—Tract of country in North Cachar and the Nágá Hills District, Assam, lying south of the Bárel mountains and along the course of the Dhaneswarí river. Tularám was a *cháprási* or messenger in the service of Gobind Chandra, the last Rájá of Cachar. His father was killed or assassinated in an unsuccessful attempt at insurrection, whereupon Tularám fled to the hills, and maintained himself successfully against all attempts to reduce him, and assisted the Burmese in their invasion of Cachar in 1824. In 1829, the Cachar Rájá was forced to make over to Tularám the tract of country in the hills which he had occupied. In 1834, after the annexation of Cachar on the murder of Rájá Gobind Chandra, a treaty was effected with Tularám (who had assumed the title of Senápati), by which that portion of his territory lying between the Mahaur and Dayang rivers to their junction, and between the Dayang and Kápili rivers to their junction, was assigned to the British Government. The rest of the country, stretching from the Mahaur river on the south to the Dayang and Jamuná rivers on the north, and from the Dhaneswarí (Dhansirí) river on the east to the Dayang on the west, remained in Tularám's possession, subject to an annual tribute of four elephants, afterwards commuted to a money payment of £49. In 1844, in consequence of infirmities and advanced age, Tularám was allowed to make over his authority to his two sons. He died in 1850. Nokulrám, the eldest son, was killed in 1853 in a raid which he made against a Nágá tribe, contrary to the provisions of the treaty; and in the following year, owing to continued misrule, the territory was brought under direct British rule, and attached to the Sub-division of North Cachar. The five surviving members of the family were pensioned and assigned rent-free land. The estimated area of the tract thus annexed in 1854 was about 1800 square miles, and the population about 5000 souls. The tract is also known as *mahal* Rángilápur.

Tulasi Dungári.—Hill range in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency, stretching into the State of Bastar. Lat. 18° 45′ N., long. 81° 30′ to 82° 40′ E. These hills, which separate the Rámgiri from the Malkangiri *zamíndáris*, have an average height of over 3000 feet above sea-level; the highest peak (Tulasi) is 3928 feet.

Tulsípur.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by the lower range of the Himálayas; on the east by the Arnála

river, which separates it from Basti District in the North-Western Provinces; on the south by Balrámpur *parganá;* and on the west by Bahraich District. One of the largest *parganás* in Oudh, and presenting most varied natural features. All along the northern hills stretches the reserved Government forest, which is succeeded by a strip of undulating ground intersected by numerous hill torrents. The soil here is usually an excellent heavy loam, fertilized by leaf-mould washed down from the forests; but the climate of this tract is very unhealthy, the population scanty, and the cultivation of a poor character. The main part of the *parganá* is a bog, consisting of a level plain, considerably lower than the submontane strip. The soil is a stiff clay, yielding the finest crops of rice. The whole is laid under water during the rains, and the villages are built on the few spots which rise above ordinary flood level. Total area, 449 square miles, of which 315 are under cultivation, the principal crops being rice, wheat, barley, and pulses. Population (1881) 132,175, namely, Hindus, 107,674; Muhammadans, 24,492; and Christians, 9. Number of villages, 339.

The most singular tribe are the Thárus, whose flat faces, scanty beards, and high cheek-bones attest their Turanian origin, although they arrogate for themselves a descent from the Rájputs of Chittor. They are a tribe of nomadic cultivators, who form the pioneers of civilisation. Regularly tilled fields are their aversion; and with the advance of regular castes, they retire farther northwards into the recesses of the forests. They are rapidly decreasing in number by emigration into Nepál, and now amount to barely 3000.

Till lately, the whole of the country between the Rápti and the hills was a vast *sál* forest, interspersed here and there with small colonies of Thárus, under their own rulers and peculiar laws, who preserved a semi-independence by paying a double tribute — the *dakhináha*—to the southern authorities, the Rájá of Balrámpur, or the Oudh Government; and the *uttarai* to the northern hill Rájás of Dang, who afterwards became better known as Rájás of Tulsípur. Under hereditary *chaudhris*, the original inhabitants had divided the *parganá* into the eight *tappas* of Bhambhár, Bijáipur, Pípra, Dhondi, Garáwan, Dond, Chaurahia, and Dári, separated from each other by as many hill streams, and defended against aggression by strong mud forts. The first of the family of hill Chauháns, who possessed an extensive Ráj in Nepál, comprising three lower valleys of the lower Himálayan ranges, was Megh Ráj, who, if the legend connected with his name is of any value, must have lived in the latter half of the 14th century. For many centuries his descendants ruled in the hills, receiving their tribute from the Thárus.

About a hundred years ago, Rájá Prithwi Pál Singh of Balrámpur died, and his rightful heir, Newal Singh, was driven out by his cousin,

the Bhayyá of Kalwári, and took refuge in the hills. The Chauhán Rájá placed at his disposal a force of 2000 Thárus, who expelled the usurper, and replaced Newal Singh on the *gadi* of Balrámpur. Not many years after this, the same hill Rájá was himself driven into the plains by the ruler of Nepál, and found refuge with his old ally, Rájá Newal Singh of Balrámpur, who requited his services by crushing the resistance of the Thárus of Tulsípur, and assuring the fugitive Chauhán in a chieftainship not inferior to the one he had just lost. In return for this, and in acknowledgment of some vague *zamíndári* claims, the Rájá of Tulsípur agreed to pay to the Balrámpur Rájá a tribute of Rs. 1500. His son, Dalel Singh, continued the payment; but when Dán Bahádur Singh succeeded to the chieftainship, he asserted that it was due only as remuneration for military aid, which he could now dispense with, and declined to pay it any longer. In 1828, the Governor-General made a hunting expedition in the Tulsípur *tarái*; and in reward for the sport, induced the King of Oudh to give the Rájá a perpetual lease of the whole *parganá* at a fixed annual rent. After a long reign, remarkable rather for its material prosperity than its wars, Dán Bahádur Singh died in 1845, not without suspicion of foul play at the hands of his son, Drigráj Singh, who succeeded him in the chieftainship. The crime, if committed, was more than avenged, and the reign of Drigráj Singh was embittered and cut short by the rebellion of his son, Drig Náráyan Singh, who in 1850 drove his father to seek refuge with the Rájá of Balrámpur. The dispossessed chieftain sought and obtained assistance at Lucknow, and supported by the Government engagement and a small body of Government troops, recovered his power for a few months in 1855. He was, however, unable permanently to resist his son, who defeated him, and, after a short imprisonment, had him poisoned. At the British annexation of the Province, Drig Náráyan Singh refused to pay his assessment, upon which he was arrested and sent under guard to Lucknow. In the meantime the Mutiny broke out, and the Rájá was shut up with the British force in the Residency, where he died from the hardships of the siege. His widow joined the rebels, and remained in arms during the whole of the Mutiny. She was at last driven over the Nepál frontier along with the shattered forces of Bála Ráo, the Rájá of Gonda, and other mutineers; and on her refusal to accept the amnesty offered by the Government, the estate of Tulsípur was confiscated, and conferred upon the Maháráj of Balrámpur as a reward for his loyalty.

Tulsípur.—Town in Gonda District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Tulsípur *parganá*; situated about 5 miles south of the line of forest. Founded about 200 years ago by a Kúrmí, named Tulsí Das. Population (1881) 2793. The town is connected with Utraula by road, but

the only trade carried on consists of a petty traffic in grain, coarse cloth, and pots and pans. The remains of a large mud fort of the old Rájás of Tulsípur is situated to the south of the village.

Tuluva.—Ancient kingdom of Southern India, lying between the Western Ghâts and the sea, and between the Kalyánapur and Chandragiri rivers. Lat. 12° 27′ to 13° 15′ N., and long. 74° 45′ to 75° 30′ E., with a coast-line of about 80 miles. It now exists only as a linguistic division. The language called Tuluva or Tulu is (1881) spoken by 426,222 inhabitants of the tracts described above, the centre of which is MANGALORE. It is considered one of the six cultivated Dravidian languages, though it has no literature, and is written either in the Malayálam or the Kánarese character. The history of Tuluva is identical with that of SOUTH KANARA.

Tumbemale.—Peak of the Western Ghâts in Coorg. Clothed with forest to the very summit.

Tumbhadra (*Toombudra*).—River of Southern India.—*See* TUNGABHADRA.

Túmkúr.—District in Mysore State. It lies between 12° 43′ and 14° 10′ N. lat., and between 76° 10′ and 77° 30′ E. long., being bounded on the north by Bellary District of the Madras Presidency, and on the other three sides by Mysore territory. Area, 3420 square miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 413,183 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at TUMKUR TOWN.

The following descriptive and statistical paragraphs refer to the District just before the rendition of the State to its Hindu Mahárájá in March 1881. Since then, an administrative reconstitution of the State of Mysore has been effected, owing to the abolition of HASSAN and CHITALDRUG DISTRICTS (*q.v.*).

Physical Aspects.—The greater portion of the District consists of elevated land, broken by river valleys, being part of the general plateau of Mysore. The height of this tract varies from 2200 to 2700 feet above sea-level. Through the east of the District a range of hills runs from north to south, rising to nearly 4000 feet, which constitutes an important watershed, dividing the river system of the Krishna from that of the Káveri (Cauvery). The chief rivers are the Jayamangala, which flows north-east into the North Pinákini, and the Shimsha, which rises in the same hill and turns south to join the Káveri. The majority of the rocks are of a gneissose formation, similar to those in the adjoining District of Bangalore. But westwards of Sira, stratified rocks make their appearance. These consist of a ferruginous slate clay, covered with a kind of magnetic ironstone. The mineral wealth of the District is considerable. Iron is obtained in large quantities from the hill-sides, and also from the black sand brought down by certain streams. The hematite or limonite, found in the same localities, is used by the braziers

for polishing their ware. Gold is washed to an insignificant amount in some of the hill streams. In the south-west is a celebrated quarry of amorphous hornblende, which furnishes excellent stone for building and statuary. Pot-stone, whetstone, and emery are also found and utilized. The greater portion of the country is plentifully dotted with trees, presenting a park-like appearance. Cocoa-nut palms are very common, and the sandal-wood occurs in some places. On the slopes of the Devaráy-durgá Hills about 18 square miles have been reserved as a State forest. It is in this tract that large game are most numerous, including tigers, leopards, bears, and wild hog. The soil is generally hard and poor, requiring much labour and manure to render it productive. But in the north-east corner of the District there commences a peculiar tract, extending into the neighbouring *táluks* of the Madras Presidency, which is extremely fertile. The soil here is sandy, and can be readily irrigated from perennial springs that are always to be reached a few feet below the surface.

History. — Túmkúr District possesses no individual history, apart from that common to the rest of Mysore. Here as elsewhere are localized early legends, associated with the story of the *Rámáyana* and with mythical Hindu kings. The trustworthy evidence of inscriptions proves that, during the early centuries of the Christian era, this tract was included within the dominions of the Chalukya and Ballála dynasties, which followed one another in Southern India. As is the case in Mysore generally, the local chiefs or *pálegárs* do not trace their descent further back than the 14th century, when the distant rule of the Vijayanagar Emperor allowed small feudatory States to spring up throughout the country. Among these *pálegárs*, those of Holuvanhalli and Madgiri were the most prominent. Both of them were offshoots of the widespread Gauda family, whose name constantly occurs over all the Nandidrúg Division; and they were both finally swept away by the organized sovereignty of Haidar Alí, which could tolerate no semi-independent subjects. But before the rise of Haidar Alí, towards the close of the 18th century, Túmkúr had been overrun by a succession of conquerors from the north. The Vijayanagar Empire was overthrown in 1564 by the allied Sultans of the Deccan; and about seventy years afterwards, a Bijápur army under the Maráthá Sháhjí, father of Sivají the Great, occupied this part of the country, which was then called after the town of Sira, and included in Karnátik Bijápur. After the capture of Bijápur by Aurangzeb in 1687, Sira became the capital of a new Province, and grew into great importance as the frontier station of the Mughals towards the south, and the residence of the Subahdár of the Karnátik. In 1757, Sira was taken by the Maráthás, and finally fell into the hands of Haidar Alí in 1761. Its wealth and population have since steadily declined. In the time

of Haidar Alí and his son Tipú, the seat of administration was fixed at Madgiri. Túmkúr town is a comparatively recent creation of British rule. After the death of Tipú in 1799, Túmkúr was comprised in the Madgiri *táluk;* and it was not till after the assumption by the British of the administration of Mysore in 1832 that the District received its present name and limits.

Population.—A *khána-sumárí* or house enumeration of the people in 1853–54 returned a total of 396,420 persons. The regular Census of 1871 ascertained the actual number to be 632,239, showing an increase of more than 59 per cent. in the interval of eighteen years, if the earlier estimate can be trusted. The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 413,183, namely, males 203,253, and females 209,930, occupying 90,822 houses, in 2295 towns and villages, or a decrease of 34·6 per cent. on the figures of 1871, due to the famine of 1876–78. Number of unoccupied houses, 27,958; average number of persons per village or town, 180; persons per occupied house, 4·55; persons per square mile, 121; villages or towns per square mile, 0·67; occupied houses per square mile, 26·5. Classified according to sex and age, there were—under 15 years, boys 72,372, and girls 74,398; total children, 146,770, or 35·5 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 130,881, and females 135,532; total adults, 266,413, or 64·5 per cent.

The religious division showed the following results:—Hindus, 395,443, or 95·7 per cent.; Muhammadans, 17,130, or 4·1 per cent.; Christians, 603; Sikhs, 6; and Buddhist, 1.

Distributed according to caste, the Hindus included—Wokligas (agricultural labourers, farmers), 88,729; Lingáyats, 52,890; Kunchigárs (brass and copper smiths), 32,277; Bedars (hunters), 26,573; Kurubas, 26,228; Gollars (cowherds), 24,403; Bráhmans, 14,112; among the Vaisyas, Komátís, 3386, and 'others,' 9958; Tiglárs (market gardeners), 11,472; Neijigas (weavers), 10,362; Agasas (washermen), 7037; Uppárs (salt-makers), 6910; Vaddárs (stone-masons, well-sinkers, tank-diggers), 6694; Idigars (toddy-drawers), 3516; Bestars (fishermen), 2973; Satánís (mixed castes), 2881; Maráthás, 2696; Ganigárs (oil-pressers), 2305; Nápits (barbers), 2242; Kumbhárs (potters), 2173; Jains, 1251; out-castes, 44,988; and 'others,' 9387.

The Muhammadans, who muster thickest in the *táluks* of Kunigal and Túmkúr, are apparently the descendants of the Bijápur and Mughal invaders. The Sunnís number 14,019; Pindarís, 2008; Shiás, 661; Wáhábís, 64; Labbays, 60; and 'others,' 318.

Out of the total of 603 Christians, 22 are Europeans and 22 Eurasians, leaving 559 for native converts. According to another principle of classification, there are 356 Protestants and 247 Roman Catholics.

The Wesleyan Society has a European missionary stationed at Túmkúr town, with a chapel and several schools.

TUMKUR TOWN, with a population (1881) of 9909 souls, is the only place in the District with more than 5000 inhabitants. There are altogether 11 municipalities in the District, with an aggregate municipal revenue in 1880–81 of £1273. The most important places, after Túmkúr town, are—SIRA, the old Muhammadan capital, which is reported to have once contained 50,000 houses; MADGIRI, the seat of administration under Haidar Alí, which still retains considerable trade and manufactures; KUNIGAL, possessing an establishment for the breeding of horses for the Mysore *siladárs;* and CHIKNAYAKANHALLI and GUBBI, the chief centres of local trade.

Of the 2295 towns and villages within the District (1881), 1693 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 474 between two and five hundred; 100 between five hundred and one thousand; 19 between one and two thousand; 4 between two and three thousand; 4 between three and five thousand; and 1 between five and ten thousand.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 distributed the male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 11,174; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 882; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 4569; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 103,321; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 13,428; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 69,879.

Agriculture.—The cultivated products of Túmkúr are substantially the same as those in the neighbouring District of Bangalore, except that less mulberry is grown, and areca and cocoa-nut palms are more abundant. The only fertile tract is the *táluk* of Madgiri, in the north-east, where the sandy soil is easily irrigated from perennial springs, and the best rice is produced in the whole of Mysore. The staple food of the people is *ragí* (Eleusine coracana), and various sorts of millet, which all belong to the category of 'dry crops.' The 'wet crops' are rice, sugar-cane, and wheat. Various pulses, oil-seeds, and vegetables are largely grown, and the supply of cocoa-nuts leaves a large surplus available for export. The following agricultural statistics are merely approximate (1881):—Area under rice, 29,193 acres; wheat, 737; other food-grains, 349,226; oil-seeds, 6994; cocoa-nut and areca-nut, 145,769; vegetables, 6630; tobacco, 1110; mulberry, 951; sugar-cane, 878; fibres, 53 acres. The agricultural stock of the District consists of 4406 carts and 67,934 ploughs. Irrigation is largely

practised, both from artificial tanks and from the perennial springs which are found just beneath the sandy soil in the north-east corner of the District. The total number of tanks is 2081, of which the largest, when full, is as much as 14 miles in circumference. Several have a depth of 30 feet. Manure is used to the extent of the annual collection of refuse from the house and cattle-yard of each cultivator. Where municipalities have been established, town refuse is freely bought for the same purpose. This, with ashes and silt, is applied to 'dry' lands, while vegetable manure and sheep droppings are reserved for 'wet' lands, which depend mainly upon irrigation. The cattle generally are of a poor character, but there are special breeds in the Madgiri *táluk* and certain other localities. Buffaloes are commonly kept both for ploughing and for the dairy. Sheep are numerous, and a good breed is to be seen round Chiknáyakanhalli. The total live stock of the District is thus returned for 1881:—Cows and bullocks, 207,612; horses, 324; ponies, 4112; donkeys, 7042; sheep and goats, 252,106; swine, 1372.

Manufactures, etc.—The principal articles of manufacture are coarse cotton cloths; woollen blankets or *kamblis*, both plain and black-and-white check, of which the best are woven at Chiknáyakanhalli; rope made from cotton thread, from the fibre of the cocoa-nut and wild aloe, and from hemp and *munj* grass; and also strong tape. Among miscellaneous productions may be mentioned domestic utensils of pottery or brass-ware, furniture, agricultural implements and tools, iron and steel weapons, gold and silver ornaments, glass bangles, toys, and sealing-wax. The once thriving industry of chintz-weaving at Sira and Midigesi has been destroyed by the importation of cheap piece-goods from Manchester. The production of raw silk, which is chiefly in the hands of Muhammadans, has decayed in recent years owing to the continued mortality among the silkworms. The returns show a total of 386 earth-salt pans, 3122 weaving-looms, and 350 oil-mills.

The trade of the District is chiefly in the hands of Lingáyat merchants, whose emporium is at Gubbi. There are three weekly markets, with an attendance ranging from 1000 to 10,000; and seven annual religious gatherings, at which much petty traffic takes place. The fair at Gubbi is frequented by traders from great distances, as it is an intermediate mart for all sorts of goods passing through the peninsula in every direction. It has been computed that 335 tons of areca-nuts are annually sold here to the value of £21,840, 134 tons of *copri* or dried cocoa-nut to the value of £3328, and £1500 of native-made cotton cloth. The chief exports from the District are *ragi*, paddy or unhusked rice, dried cocoa-nuts, areca-nuts, earth-salt, pulses, and vegetables. The imports received in exchange include European

piece-goods, rice, spices, cotton, vegetables, dyes, and tobacco. The larger portion, however, of the District trade is of a through character, consisting of an interchange between the east and west coasts, and especially between the towns of Bangalore and Bellary.

The length of imperial roads is 156 miles, maintained at an annual cost of £3123, of which nearly half is appropriated to the main road from Bellary through Túmkúr town to Bangalore; the length of District road is 328 miles, costing £1667. The Mysore State Railway from Bangalore intersects Túmkúr District from east to west.

Administration.—In 1881–82, the total revenue of Túmkúr District, excluding forests, education, and public works, amounted to £106,604. The chief items were—land revenue, £79,574; *ábkári* or excise, £4928; *sáyar* or customs, £3284; *mohatarfa* or assessed taxes, £3095. The District is divided into 8 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, with 57 *hoblis* or minor fiscal units. In 1870–71, the number of separate estates was 446, owned by 5400 registered proprietors or coparceners. During 1880, the average daily prison population of the District jail was 36·54, of whom 1 was a woman. In the same year, the District police force numbered 552 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £5584. These figures show 1 policeman to every 6 square miles of area or to every 748 persons of the population, the cost being £1, 12s. 4¼d. per square mile and 4¼d. per head of population.

The number of schools aided and inspected by the State in 1880–81 was 118, attended by 1252 pupils, being 1 school to every 29 square miles and 3 pupils to every thousand of the population. This is exclusive of private uninspected schools. The Census of 1881 returned 6810 males and 304 females as under instruction, besides 18,027 males and 291 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Túmkúr generally has the reputation of being equable and healthy, agreeing alike with natives and Europeans. In the south and south-west, it closely resembles that of the adjoining District of Bangalore, the heat being moderated by the high elevation and the abundant forests. Proceeding north from Sira, the temperature rises towards that attained on the lower level of Bellary. It has been observed that the eastern slope of every hill range is perceptibly warmer than the western. During the two years 1873–74, the highest temperature registered at Túmkúr town was 88° F. in the month of April, the lowest 68° in January; and in 1880 the highest was 93° F. in May; the lowest was reached in July, 60°; the lowest in December was 62° F. The hot season lasts from the middle of February to the middle of May. The annual rainfall, calculated on an average of thirty-eight years, amounts to 32·7 inches, of which the greater part falls in the two months of September and October. The

rainfall in 1880 was 37·93 inches. In some parts, especially in the neighbourhood of Kunigal, malarious fever prevails, of a very persistent type; but on the whole, the fevers of the District are mild and amenable to treatment. The vital statistics are far from trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that in 1880, out of a total number of 7962 deaths, 6102 were assigned to fevers, 24 to small-pox, and 319 to bowel complaints. A charitable dispensary is subsidized by the Government at Túmkúr town, at which 5342 out-patients were treated in 1880–81.

It must be again mentioned that the foregoing article is based, like the rest of this work, on the Census of 1881. In that year the State of Mysore was replaced under its Native Prince; and an administrative re-distribution of the Districts has since been effected. The present article can, however, only describe Túmkúr District as it existed at the time of the last Census in 1881. [For further information regarding Túmkúr District at a still earlier date, see the *Gazetteer of Mysore*, by Mr. Lewis Rice, 2 vols. (Bangalore, 1877).]

Túmkúr. — *Táluk* in the centre of Túmkúr District, Mysore State. Area, 401 square miles, of which 159 are cultivated. Population (1881) 61,177, namely, males 29,842, and females 31,335. Hindus number 56,769; Muhammadans, 3927; Christians, 474; Sikhs, 6; and Buddhist, 1. Land revenue (1881–82), exclusive of water rates, £9671, or 2s. per cultivated acre. Crops — rice, cocoa-nut, and areca-nut; the irrigation is from tanks and from *kapile* or sub-surface wells. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 139 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 263.

Túmkúr (said to be derived from '*tumuku*,' a small drum).—Chief town of Túmkúr District, and head-quarters of the Túmkúr *táluk*, Mysore State; situated in lat. 13° 20′ 20″ N., and long. 77° 8′ 50″ E., at the south-western base of the Devaráy-durga Hills, 43 miles north-west of Bangalore. Population (1881) 9909, namely, Hindus, 7365; Muhammadans, 2076; Christians, 462; and 'others,' 6. Municipal revenue (1874–75), £90; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. Said to have been founded by a prince of the Mysore family, who built a fort, now levelled. The town is prettily situated, and surrounded with gardens of plantains, areca-nut and cocoa-nut palms, and betel vines. Some of the streets are wide. The native houses are mostly mud-built, of one storey, and tiled. The European quarter lies to the north. The court-house of the Deputy Commissioner is a conspicuous circular structure of three storeys. The other public buildings include the usual offices for the Assistant Commissioner, executive engineer, and *ámildár*; a District school, barracks for the *bárr* or infantry, and *sillidár* or cavalry force of Mysore State; a jail, dispensary, and travellers' bungalow. Túmkúr is also the residence of a European missionary of

the Wesleyan Society, who superintends a chapel and several schools. A weekly fair held on Thursdays.

Tumsar.—Town and municipality in Bhandárá *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 15′ N., and long. 80° 19′ E., 20 miles north-east of Bhandárá town, on a small affluent of the Waingangá. Population (1881) 7388, namely, Hindus, 6430; Muhammadans, 594; Jains, 29; Christians, 5; and non-Hindu aborigines, 87. Municipal income (1882–83), £252, of which £224 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 7¼d. per head. The town is now a station on the Nágpur-Chhatísgarh Railway. It was formerly a large depôt where grain from Chhatísgarh was stored previous to its export to the west. Since the opening of the railway, however, the grain goes direct by rail to Nágpur. Tumsar is still a local centre of the grain trade, and also a receiving depôt for the produce of Bálághát and Seoní Districts. The only manufacture is of coarse cotton cloth. The town stands on red gravel, and is thought healthy. The well water is mostly brackish; but numerous wells outside the town yield good water, and a fine new well of sweet water has recently been constructed in the market-place. A large reservoir on the north-west meets the extra requirements caused by the watering of large herds of cattle during the grain season. Tumsar has a flourishing Government school, handsome corn exchange, commodious *sarái* (native inn), and police station. It is surrounded by fine mango groves; and during the grain season is a busy place.

Tuna.—Port in Cutch (Kachchh) State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 2′ 30″ N., long. 70° 10′ E. The seaport of Anjár, about 46 miles east of Mándvi. Tuna is an insignificant place; even at spring-tides, boats of 50 tons with difficulty get up a small winding creek not 30 yards wide.

Tundlá (*Toondla*).—Town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces, and a station on the East Indian Railway main line; distant from Calcutta (Howrah station) 827 miles, from Agra city (for which it is the junction station) 14 miles. Lat. 27° 12′ 50″ N., long. 78° 17′ 50″ E. Population (1881) 2735, namely, Tundlá village 1135, and railway station 1600.

Tunga.—River in Mysore State, Southern India, which unites with its twin stream the Bhadra to form the Tungabhadra. It rises beneath the peak of Gangámula in the Western Ghâts, not far from the source of the Bhadra, in Kadúr District; and after flowing in a northerly direction through that District, enters the District of Shimoga and joins the Bhadra, in lat. 14° N., and long. 75° 43′ E., near the village of Kudali. The principal place it passes is SHIMOGA TOWN. As compared with the Bhadra, its current is rapid, and its banks less shut in by dense and unhealthy forest. At Mandagadde it branches for a

short distance into seven streams, which do not permit the downward passage of rafts of bamboos and timber during the dry season. In Kadúr District, it is crossed by about twenty dams for irrigation purposes, which supply 303 acres and yield a revenue of £130. A project was formed a few years ago by the Madras Irrigation Company for damming the entire stream, either at Tirthahalli or Mallúr in Shimoga District, and thus constructing an immense reservoir. All the requisite surveys were made, but nothing has yet been done. According to a Puránic legend, the Tunga was formed by the left tusk of the boar *avatár* of Vishnu.

Tungabhadra (*Toomboodra*).—River of Southern India, formed by the junction of the two rivers TUNGA and BHADRA. Both rise near the south-west frontier of Mysore, on the eastern slopes of the high range of hills which border on South Kánara. Their junction takes place in lat. 14° N., and long. 75° 43′ E., in Mysore, in front of the Bráhman village of Kudali in Shimoga District. Though running low during the hot-weather months, the united stream forms, from June to October, —the season of the south-west monsoon,—a river over half a mile in breadth, and deep enough to bear floats of timber from the western forests into the open country to the east. Its water is to a considerable extent used for irrigation. About 300 years ago, the Vijayanagar kings built seven gigantic dams, *bandars* or anicuts, across the Tungabhadra to the east and west of Anaigundi, their capital. From these dams, irrigation canals are led along both sides of the river. The chief tributaries of the Tungabhadra on the left bank are the Kumadwati and the Wardhá, both of which rise in the north of Mysore, and traverse the southern portions of Dhárwár District; and on the right bank, the Haggari (in Bellary) and the Hindri (in Karnúl). From the point of junction of the Tunga and Bhadra, the united stream, flowing north and north-east, forms the northern boundary of Bellary District and of the Madras Presidency, and, entering Karnúl (Kurnool) District, joins the Kistna river 16 miles north-east of the town of Karnúl, in lat. 15° 58′ N., and long. 78° 17′ 20″ E. The total length of the Tungabhadra is about 400 miles. The maximum flood discharge at Harihar is calculated at 207,000 cubic feet of water per second; the ordinary discharge at 30,000 cubic feet. The waters of the Madras Irrigation Company take off from the Tungabhadra river. The only navigation is by means of basket boats. The channel being rocky, navigation is impossible in the dry season. The chief towns on the banks of the river are Harihar in Mysore, Kampli in Bellary, and Karnúl. At Harihar it is crossed by a fine bridge of stone and brick, constructed in 1868 at a cost of £35,000. The Madras Railway crosses it at Rámpur, in Bellary, by a bridge built on 52 piers. The river abounds in crocodiles.

Tuni.—*Zamíndárí* division of Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Area, 320 square miles. Population (1881) 66,544, namely, males 32,863, and females 33,681; occupying 13,222 houses in 139 villages. Hindus number 65,547; Muhammadans, 972; and Christians, 25.

Turá.—Principal mountain range in the Gáro Hills, Assam, running east and west through the entire length of the District. The highest peak is 4652 feet. The sides are steep, and for the most part clothed with dense forest. From the summit, a magnificent view is obtained over the broad valley of Northern Bengal, reaching as far as the snowy peaks of the Himálayas behind Dárjíling.

Turá.—Principal village and administrative head-quarters of the Gáro Hills District, Assam; situated in lat. 25° 29′ 30″ N., and long. 90° 16′ 10″ E., on a spur of the mountain range of the same name, about 1300 feet above sea-level and 40 miles west of Manikar Char on the Brahmaputra. Population (1881) 744 souls. Turá was fixed upon as the civil station when the Gáro Hills were erected into an independent District in 1868. The site is not healthy, and most of the European and native residents of Turá (other than Gáros) suffer severely from fever. An excellent water-supply has been introduced by means of a small aqueduct. The station is connected with Dhubrí on the Brahmaputra, a distance of about 50 miles, by a bridle-path and a line of telegraph. The houses are all built of wooden posts, bamboos, and thatch; and the whole was originally surrounded by a stockade. The public buildings include the usual courts and offices, barrack for 200 constables, bungalows for the Deputy Commissioner, Superintendent of Police, and Civil Surgeon, dispensary, and school-house, maintained by the American Baptist Mission. The average rainfall is about 126 inches in the year; the thermometer ranges from 90° to 51° F.

Turaiyúr.—Town in Musiri *táluk*, Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 9′ 10″ N., long. 78° 38′ 15″ E. Situated about 25 miles north of Trichinopoli town. Population (1881) 6637, namely, Hindus, 6465; Muhammadans, 145; and Christians, 27. Number of houses, 1145. Turaiyúr was formerly a *tahsíli* station; at present it has a sub-magistrate's court. There is a large tank with a curious half-ruined three-storied building in its centre, formerly an occasional residence of the *zamíndár*, who represents the ancient *pálegár* (*pálaiyakáran*) of the place.

Turavanúr.—Town in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State, Southern India. Lat. 14° 24′ N., long. 76° 30′ E. Population (1881) 3612. *Kamblis* or country blankets and coarse cotton cloths are woven, and there is a special industry of dyeing in red.

Turmápurí.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Sákolí *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; 5 miles north of Sákolí, comprising 5

villages on an area of 13 square miles, one-eighth of which is cultivated. Population (979 in 1881) chiefly Gonds and Goárás, but the *zamíndár* is a Mána by caste. The forests contain much large timber of the unreserved kinds.

Turmbhen.—Port in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency. —*See* TROMBAY.

Turtípár.—Town in Rasrá *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 08′ 50″ N., and long. 83° 54′ 17″ E., in the north-western corner of the District, on the right bank of the Gogra, 20 miles from Rasrá town. Population (1881) 6307, namely, Hindus 5805, and Muhammadans 502. Large trade in grain, timber, tobacco, salt, and brass-ware, for the manufacture of which last the village is noted. Post-office. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Turuvekere (*Turvekere*).—Town in Túmkúr District, Mysore State, Southern India; situated in lat. 13° 10′ 10″ N., and long. 76° 42′ 10″ E., 44 miles south-west of Túmkúr town on the Tiptúr-Mayasandra road. Population (1881) 1702, of whom 1616 are Hindus. The town was till 1873 head-quarters of the Turuvekere *táluk*, now called Kadaba *táluk*. The ancient name is said to have been Narasinghapura.

Tuticorin (*Túttukudi*).—Town, municipality, and seaport in Otapidaram *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 48′ 3″ N., long. 78° 11′ 27″ E. Population (1881) 16,281, namely, males 8339, and females 7942; occupying 3214 houses. Hindus number 9876; Christians, 4987; Muhammadans, 1417; and 'others,' 1. Head-quarters of the Sub-Collector of the District. The appearance of the place and of its neighbourhood is very unattractive. In parts, the subsoil is so shallow that no trees or plants will grow, and elsewhere there is nothing but heavy sand with palmyra-palms and a few bushes. During the south-west monsoon, the dust is intolerable. Although the total rainfall is scanty, any heavy shower used formerly to cause much inconvenience from want of drainage. The average annual rainfall for the eighteen years ending in 1881 was 19·1 inches.

Tuticorin seems to have been formerly an important place. In 1700, the Jesuits spoke of it as having 50,000 inhabitants. From the Portuguese it passed to the Dutch in the 17th century, and was lost by them, with Negapatam and other possessions, when war broke out with the English in 1781. Of the inhabitants, about 30 per cent. are Catholics (Paravars), whose conversion in the 16th century has been described under TINNEVELLI DISTRICT. Tuticorin is their chief town and the residence of their head-man. There are several Catholic churches, a convent of European nuns, and 4 priests.

In the value of its foreign trade, Tuticorin stands second in the Madras Presidency, and sixth in all India. Trade has much increased

since the opening, in 1875, of the South Indian Railway, of which Tuticorin is a terminus. In 1883–84, 1262 vessels of 267,106 tonnage called at Tuticorin, of which 116 were steamers of 194,038 tonnage. The average annual value of the trade for the five years ending 1883–84 was £1,442,390—imports, £364,753; and exports, £1,077,637. The value of the trade in 1883–84 was £1,798,847—imports, £418,751; and exports, £1,380,096. The chief exports are cotton, coffee, jaggery, chillies, etc. Much rice, as well as cattle, horses, sheep, and poultry, is sent to Ceylon, with which there is also a considerable passenger traffic. The harbour is well sheltered, but only 8 feet deep; ships have to anchor 2½ miles from the shore, and the cargo is brought out in boats carrying 20 tons. The steamers of the British India Steam Navigation Company call up and down the coast each way once a week. The lighthouse on Hare Island was built in 1874. The pearl and *shank* (conch shell) fisheries have been noticed under TINNEVELLI DISTRICT. The portmaster is superintendent of pearl-fisheries. There are several European merchants and steam cotton-presses at Tuticorin. In 1883–84, the municipal income from taxation was £1557; incidence of taxation, 1s. 11d. per head. The water-supply is derived from the Támbraparni river, being brought from a reservoir 4 miles distant through open channels and masonry conduits, and stored in dipping-wells and tanks. It gets polluted on the way, and the supply sometimes fails. The local wells are all salt.

Tuwái.—River of Manipur, Lushai, and Southern Assam.—*See* TIPAI.

Twan-te.—Town and head-quarters of the An-gyí township, Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 16° 41′ 30″ N., and long. 96° 0′ 30″ E., at the northern extremity of the Twan-te Tawgyí, or 'great jungle,' on the banks of the Twan-te river, about 7 miles from its mouth in the To or China Bakir. A few years ago, the Dala creek formed a highway of communication between Twan-te and Rangoon; but this creek having almost completely silted up, a canal has been cut which affords excellent means of communication for boats. Twan-te occupies the site of an old Talaing town, the walls of which can still be traced, and the ruins of a palace are pointed out by the inhabitants. In its immediate neighbourhood is the SHWE SAN-DAW pagoda, an object of greater veneration among the Talaings than is the SHWE DAGON at Rangoon to the Burmese. Close to Twan-te is a grove of seven *thut-ta-bhat* (Achras sapota) trees, the fruit of which was much valued by the Talaing monarchs. Although the high land behind the town is fertile and admirably adapted for cultivation, very little use was made of it till after British annexation (1852). Since then, a large colony of Shans have settled in Shan-zu, about a mile south of Twan-te, and have made extensive clearings. Twan-te is celebrated

for its large earthenware jars, which supply the Rangoon market, and, indeed, the greater portion of the Irawadi delta. Local traffic in rice, betel-leaf, sugar-cane, dried fish, *nga-pí* or fish paste, bamboos, and coarse reed mats. Population (1881) 2350.

Twenty-four Parganás, The.—The metropolitan District of the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 21° 55′ 20″ and 22° 57′ 32″ N. lat., and between 88° 6′ 45″ and 88° 20′ 51″ E. long. It forms the south-western District of the Presidency Division; and is bounded on the north by Nadiyá, on the north-east by Jessor, on the east by Khulná District and the Sundarbans, on the south by the Sundarbans extending to the sea, and on the west by the river Húglí. Area, 2128 square miles, exclusive of the unsurveyed Sundarbans, but inclusive of Calcutta, which, with its suburbs, has an area of 31 square miles. Population (1881) 1,618,420 souls, exclusive of the town and suburbs of Calcutta; or inclusive of that city, 2,303,078 souls. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at ALIPUR, a southern suburb of Calcutta.

Physical Aspects.—The Twenty-four Parganás form the western extremity of the Gangetic delta. They stretch out in a vast alluvial plain, hemmed in by great rivers on the right and left, with the sea in front, and countless intersecting channels. The level slopes imperceptibly upwards from the coast-line, which is below high-water mark, being protected from the sea only by natural sandhills. The northern or inland part of the District consists of fairly raised deltaic land of old formation; the southern or seaboard division lies just above the tidal wave, and forms a network of rivers and creeks, which creep through dense, uninhabited jungle into the sea. This seaboard tract, the SUNDARBANS, is administered in revenue matters by a special officer. It discloses the process of land-making in an unfinished state, and presents the last stage in the life of a great river. In the Twenty-four Parganás, as in other deltaic Districts, the river-banks silt up till they form the highest levels, from which the ground gradually slopes downward into a depressed tract, lying midway between each set of two rivers. The depressed portions form natural basins, devoid of an exit for their water; and hence the numerous swamps (*bíls*) between the larger rivers, especially in the eastern part of the District. The western portion, in the neighbourhood of the Salt Water Lake near Calcutta, is intersected by innumerable watercourses (*kháls*), which at spring-tides flood the surrounding fields, except where embanked by the cultivators for the protection of their crops from salt water. In the north of the District the soil is rich; the north-eastern portion, in particular, is well raised and studded with beautiful palm groves. Every village lies within its own fringe of plantation and garden ground. In the southern tracts, from a line drawn across the District about 10 miles

south of Calcutta, the soil is impregnated with salt, which, however, seems to have little effect on the crops. With the exception of three tracts of jungle in the southern division of the District, but little waste land exists in the Twenty-four Parganás north of the Sundarbans, and even such patches are utilized for thatching grass.

The river system of the Twenty-four Parganás is derived from the Ganges and its distributaries. Each river forms the centre of a minor system of interlacing distributaries of its own. Many of them change their names at different parts of their course, re-enter their parent channels, and then break away again, or temporarily combine with other rivers until they reach their final stage as estuaries, as they near the sea. The five principal rivers are the HUGLI, BIDYADHARI, PIALI, KALINDI, and ICHHAMATI, all navigable by the largest native boats throughout the year; besides the great estuaries in the Sundarbans. These arms of the sea, proceeding from west to east, are the MALANCHA, RAIMANGAL, MATLA, JAMIRA, and the HUGLI, or BURA MANTRESWAR as the mouth is locally called.

No alterations have taken place in the courses of the different rivers of late years, but the Húglí now follows a very different channel to what it did in ölden times. The original course was identical with the present Tolly's Canal as far as Gariá about 8 miles south of Calcutta, from which point it ran to the sea in a south-easterly direction. The old channel, which is still traceable for a considerable distance, has long ago dried up, and the bed now consists of a series of shallow pools. Many large Hindu villages are situated on the banks of the old stream, which is called the Adi, or original Gangá. The existence of semi-circular or serpentine lakes in the neighbourhood of many of the rivers points to former changes in their courses. They once formed part of tortuous streams, but the ends of the semicircular arc having silted up, the rivers opened out a shorter passage for themselves along the chord of the arc.

The banks of the rivers form a series of curves, being generally abrupt on the side towards which the current strikes, and sloping on the other. Their beds in the Sundarbans consist of vegetable mould, and in the northern part of the District of sand or clay. With the exception of the Sundarbans, the land along the river-banks is generally cultivated. Many islands and sandbanks are formed by the rivers, the most important being SAGAR ISLAND, situated at the point where the Húglí debouches into the Bay of Bengal.

Canals or artificial waterways form a feature of the Twenty-four Parganás. They number 21, of which 18 have an aggregate length of 127 miles. One of the most important, TOLLY'S NALA, connects the Húglí about a mile south of Calcutta with the Bidyádhárí, 10 miles distant. It was excavated by Major Tolly in 1776 as a private venture,

but subsequently passed to Government, and it now forms a considerable source of revenue. The principal boat routes eastward through the Twenty-four Parganás consist of the 'Outer Sundarbans Passage,' *viâ* Port Canning, for heavily laden craft; and the 'Inner Sundarbans Passage,' *viâ* Husáinábád and the Ichhámatí, for smaller boats.

Large tracts of marsh land in the Sundarbans have been reclaimed and brought under cultivation by means of embankments, raised to keep out the salt and brackish water. The soil of the Sundarbans contains a large proportion of decayed vegetable matter, and is very favourable to the growth of rice. The river-banks are in some places clayey, and embankments of this soil last a long time, and do not easily admit salt water by leakage. Some of the large marshes are capable of being drained, and rendered fit for cultivation. A portion of the Salt Water Lake is at present in course of reclamation, by the sewage of Calcutta being deposited on it. Two varieties of reeds, called *páti* and *nal*, grow indigenously in several of the swamps. The former is used in making fine mats (*chatái*), and the latter for coarse mats (*mádur*). A superior kind of reed (*káti*), extensively used in mat-making, is grown in some parts of the Diamond Harbour Sub-division.

The extensive unappropriated forests in the Sundarbans along the sea face of the Bay of Bengal were formerly leased to the Port Canning Company. The lease, however, was cancelled by Government in 1869, and the forests are now open to the public. The Sundarban forests have been treated of in a separate article on that portion of the District (SUNDARBANS, *q.v.*). The chief jungle products are as follows:—(1) Different kinds of timber, such as *sundrí* and *pasur*, for planks and house posts; *kirpá*, for rafters; *báin*, for beams; *hentál*, for the walls of houses and granaries; *garán*, for fences, rafters, etc., and the bark for tanning and dyeing; *keorá*, for planks, etc.; *gango* and *khálsí*, for firewood; and *báblá*, for firewood, the bark being also used in tanning and dyeing. (2) Different kinds of shells. (3) Honey and beeswax. (4) *Golpátá* leaves, for thatching purposes. (5) *Gáb* fruit, the extract of which forms a thick glue, and is extensively used in coating native boats, to preserve them from the action of the water. (6) *Anantamúl*, *golancha*, *nátá*, and other vegetable drugs which grow indigenously, and are used for medicinal purposes.

Wild Animals.—The extension of cultivation has of late years driven away, and in many places exterminated, the game in the northern part of this District, once famous for its sport. A stray tiger from the Sundarbans is still to be met with, leopards are more numerous, with several varieties of deer; and an excellent bag of snipe, wild duck, teal, with an occasional jungle-fowl, may generally be relied on. In the Sundarbans, however, the tiger, leopard, rhinoceros, wild buffalo, spotted deer, hog-deer, barking deer, and *bara singhar* or large deer

are common. The small game comprise hares, jungle-fowl, wild geese, wild ducks, teal, pigeons, doves, snipe, and quail. The superior sorts of fish are the *bhekti*, *hilsá*, *tapsi* or mango fish, *rui*, *kátlá*, *mirgal*, *chital*, etc. Turtles, crabs, and shrimps are common.

History.—The Twenty-four Parganás formed part of the old Mughal *sarkár* of Sátgáon, 'the seven villages.' SATGAON, once the chief port of Bengal, is now a petty cluster of huts on the west bank of the Húglí, just below Tribeni, in HUGLI DISTRICT. A long, depressed line in the Twenty-four Parganás, marked by pools and tanks, is still held sacred as the original stream of the Ganges. It branches south-east from the present channel of the Húglí, a little below Calcutta, with the famous shrine of Kálighát on its bank. A legend relates how the sixty thousand sons of Ságar, King of Oudh, having traced the sacred steed of their father's 100th horse-sacrifice to the cell of the sage Kapilmuni, accused him of the theft, and were cursed by him and burnt up. A grandson obtained the promise of their salvation, if Gangá in heaven would come down to earth in the shape of water and touch the ashes. Gangá, the aqueous form of Vishnu and Lakshmi, in due time descended in answer to the prayers of Bhágirath, the great-grandson of Ságar miraculously born of a widow. Bhágirath led the divine stream as far as Háthiágarh, in the Twenty-four Parganás. Here he declared that he could show the way no farther. Whereupon Gangá, to make sure of reaching the spot, divided herself into a hundred streams, forming the delta. One of these streams reached the cell, bathed the ashes, and thus atoning for the offence of the dead against the holy sage, procured admittance for their souls to heaven. In this way, Gangá became the sacred river of the hundred mouths. The great island, Ságar, on the seaboard, commemorates the name of the mythical King of Oudh, the ancestor of Ráma; and thousands of pilgrims from the most distant parts of India still repair every year to its shores at the great Bathing Festival, to wash away their sins.

The old maps of De Barros (1540 A.D.) and Van den Broucke (1660) show that the Twenty-four Parganás long continued a semi-aqueous region, and the District makes no appearance in the Mughal history of Bengal. The English obtained it from the Muhammadans by the treaty of the 20th December 1757, by which the Nawáb Názím of Bengal, Mír Jafar, ceded it to the East India Company. The District was then known as 'the *zamíndárí* of Calcutta,' or 'the Twenty-four *Parganás zamíndári*,' and embraced an area of 883 square miles. The rights at first ceded to the Company were those of an ordinary landholder, but they were strengthened and added to subsequently. In 1759, a *jágír sanad*, making over full proprietary rights in the land, was granted by the Emperor to Lord Clive personally, with reversion on his death (1774) to the East India Company in perpetuity.

Our possession of the port and city of Calcutta dates from half a century earlier, and was acquired in a different manner. The authority of the District officers of the Twenty-four Parganás does not extend to Calcutta city; and the civil, criminal, and revenue jurisdictions have changed from time to time, owing to transfers of estates to and from the neighbouring Districts of Nadiyá, Jessor, Húglí, and the newly constituted District of Khulná. From 1834, after the transfer of large areas from Nadiyá and Jessor, the District was for a considerable time divided into two great parts; the Alípur division, or territory originally ceded to the Company, and the Bárásat joint magistracy, comprising the lands taken from Nadiyá, etc. In April 1861 another redistribution took place, by which the joint magistracy of Bárásat was abolished, and the District was parcelled out into the following eight Sub-divisions, each under the charge of a separate officer, viz.—(1) DIAMOND HARBOUR, (2) BARUIPUR, (3) ALIPUR, (4) DUM DUM, (5) BARRACKPUR, (6) BARASAT, (7) BASURHAT, and (8) SATKHIRA. On the constitution of Khulná District in 1882, the Sátkhirá Sub-division was separated from the Twenty-four Parganás and annexed to the new District.

Population.—Several attempts have been made to arrive at an enumeration of the people. In 1822, the population of the Twenty-four Parganás, as then constituted, was estimated to number 599,595 souls, exclusive of the town and suburbs of Calcutta. At the time of the Revenue Survey (1846–51), the area of the District was returned at 2246 square miles, and the population (also exclusive of Calcutta) at 947,204, showing a density of 421 persons per square mile. These estimates, however, were admittedly much below the truth. The first regular Census was taken throughout the Twenty-four Parganás on the night of the 25th January 1872. Allowing for all recent transfers, and taking the District as constituted after the transfer of Sátkhirá Sub-division to Khulná, the Twenty-four Parganás contained in 1872 a population (exclusive of Calcutta and the Sundarbans) of 1,527,773. By the last Census, taken on the night of the 17th February 1881, the population was ascertained to number 1,618,420, showing an increase of 90,647, or 5·93 per cent., in the nine years between 1872 and 1881. The whole of this increase, however, was found to be in the southern part of the settled District, where the climate is reported to be particularly healthy, and where the pioneers of cultivation are constantly and steadily pushing back the Sundarban forests. Baruipur Sub-division showed an increase of 7·08 per cent., Diamond Harbour of 11·37 per cent., and Basurhát of 20·48 per cent. The Alípur or head-quarters Sub-division also showed a nominal increase of ·79 per cent. But in the north and east of the District, Dum Dum Sub-division showed a decrease of 7·91 per cent., Barrackpur of 9·05 per cent., and Bárásat

of 2·41 per cent. in the nine years. The falling off has been shown to be due to the increasing unhealthiness of this tract, which is said to be deficient in drainage, and to malaria.

The results exhibited by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows. In every case the figures are exclusive of Calcutta city and suburbs. Area of District, 2097 square miles; number of towns 16, with 5062 villages; number of houses, 282,626, namely, occupied 269,694, and unoccupied 12,932. Total population, 1,618,420, namely, males 828,225, and females 790,195. Average density of population, 772 persons per square mile, or exclusive of the larger towns, 679 per square mile. Towns and villages per square mile, 2·42; persons per town or village, 319; houses per square mile, 134·8; persons per house, 6. Classified according to sex and age, the Twenty-four Parganás contain—under 15 years of age, boys 319,843, and girls 292,727; total children, 612,570, or 37·8 per cent. of the District population: 15 years and upwards, males 508,382, and females 497,468; total adults, 1,005,850, or 62·2 per cent.

Religion.—Hindus number 1,003,110, or 61·9 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 604,723, or 37·3 per cent.; Christians, 9928; Buddhists, 230; Pársis, 10; Brahmos, 5; and non-Hindu aborigines, 414. Among the higher castes of Hindus, Bráhmans number 62,670; Rájputs, 4072; Káyasths, 30,013; and Baniyás, 6054. The lower castes, who form the great mass of the Hindu population, include the following:—Pod, the most numerous caste in the District, mainly occupied as boatmen and fishermen, and occasionally as cultivators and labourers, 217,187 in number; Kaibartta, cultivators, fishermen, and domestic servants, 145,496; Bágdí, a semi-aboriginal labouring caste, 78,654; Goálá, cowherds and milkmen, 56,682; Tior, fishermen, boatmen, and labourers, 37,171; Chamár, shoemakers and leather dealers, 36,586; Nápit, barbers, 21,837; Chandál, cultivators, labourers, and village watchmen, 21,277; Sádgop, the highest cultivating caste, 19,499; Dhobí, washermen, 13,973; Jugí, weavers, 12,978; Lohár, blacksmiths, 12,947; Kumbhár, potters, 12,101; Jaliyá, fishermen, 11,424; Kapáli, weavers, 9551; Tántí, weavers, 8129; Teli, shopkeepers and oil-sellers, 7413; Kalu, oil-pressers, 6790; Bhumij, a semi-aboriginal labouring caste, 5551; Sunrí, traders and wine-sellers, 5270; Sonár, goldsmiths, 4965; Baruí, cultivators of the betel-vine, 4718; Kúrmí, one of the best cultivating castes, 3484; Harí, sweepers and swineherds, 3441; Madak, confectioners, 3312; Dom, basket-makers, sweepers, and also hangmen, 3015; Kahár, palanquin-bearers, 2944; and Málí, gardeners, 2390. Vaishnavs, or caste-rejecting Hindus, number 18,023.

The Muhammadan population are divided according to sect as follows:—Sunnís, 589,316; Shiás, 9045; and unspecified, 6362. The

great majority of the Muhammadans are the descendants of Hindu castes or aboriginal tribes, who were converted to the faith of Islám either by force or persuasion during Muhammadan rule. No new sects of Musalmáns seem to be setting up. A few Wahábís are found in the District, but they are not actively fanatical.

The Christian population comprises 1676 Europeans, Americans, Australians, and Africans; 171 Eurasians; 8048 natives of India; 12 non-Indian Asiatics; and 21 'others.' By sect, the Christians are returned as under—Church of England, 3694; Roman Catholics, 2580; Baptists, 1313; Protestants undistinguished by sect, 541; Independents, 410; Church of Scotland, 161; Methodists, 95; Syrian Church, 56; Free Church, 34; Armenian Church, 11; 'others' and unspecified, 1033. The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel first established a mission in the Twenty-four Parganás at Tollyganj in 1823. The other Missionary Societies at work in the interior of the District are the London Missionary Society, Baptist Mission Society, Church Mission Society, Church of England Mission, and Church of England Zenána Mission Society.

Urban and Rural Population. — Exclusive of Calcutta city and suburbs, the Twenty-four Parganás contain fifteen towns with a population exceeding five thousand inhabitants, as follows:—SOUTH SUBURBAN town, population (1881) 51,658; AGARPARA, or South Barrackpur, 30,317; BARANAGAR, or North Suburban town, 29,982; NAIHATI, 21,533; NAWABGANJ, or North Barrackpur, 17,702; BASURHAT, 14,843; SOUTH DUM DUM, 14,108; BADURIA, 12,981; RAJPUR, 10,576; BARASAT, 10,533; JAINAGAR, 7685; GOBARDANGA, 6154; ITANDA, 5607; KADIHATI, or North Dum Dum, 5201; and TAKI, 5120. These towns, together with BARUIPUR (population 3742), are all municipalities, with an aggregate urban population of 247,742, or 15·3 per cent. of the District population. Total municipal income (1883–84), £63,151, of which £55,210 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 2½d. per head. Many of these towns, however, are mere collections of villages densely populated, and grouped together for municipal purposes, while cattle graze, and rice is sown and reaped in their midst. Of the 5062 minor villages, 2592 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 1846 between two and five hundred; 525 between five hundred and a thousand; 91 between one and two thousand; 8 between two and three thousand; and 1 between three and five thousand inhabitants.

Occupations, etc.—As regards occupation, the Census Report divides the male population into the following six classes:—(1) Professional and official class, 18,602; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 17,765; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 30,333; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, in-

cluding gardeners, 308,691; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including artisans, 88,158; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 364,676.

The rise in prices and wages of late years, the decrease in the number of money-lenders, the general use of ornaments among females, and the increase in the style and number of masonry buildings, all indicate a marked improvement in the material condition of the people. In olden times, it is stated that a large proportion of the rural population could only afford a single meal of rice a day; but such cases are now very exceptional.

Village Heads.—This is one of the few Districts of Bengal in which an inquiry was made at the time of the Census of 1871 with regard to the indigenous mechanism of the village. Near the towns, the influence of the courts of law has practically supplanted the customary functions of the village communities and their head-men. In the more sequestered parts, the internal direction of the village still rests with a few influential men, the village heads (*mandals*), who hold their office by a combination of hereditary right with popular selection. They decide disputes on boundary matters, caste questions, family dissensions, and petty differences between the villagers. Such matters comparatively seldom find their way into our courts. The succession to the office of head-man usually goes to the eldest son, but sometimes to a brother of the deceased *mandal;* and a younger son who can read and write would be preferred to an elder one who could not. Out of 985 village heads, it was found that 913 had succeeded their fathers; in the case of 861, the office had also been held by the grandfather. In one instance, the *mandal* was only nine years old; but this was felt to be an anomaly. Very few of the village heads belong to high castes. In this respect, as in others, they fairly represent the surrounding population. Of the 5818 village heads in the Twenty-four Parganás (exclusive of Bárásat *tháná*), only 9 were Bráhmans, 6 Rájputs, and 4 Káyasths. Súdras and low-caste Hindus furnished 3524, ranging from the respectable blacksmiths to the despised leather dealers; Musalmáns, 2262; and native Christians, 13. Some large villages have 3 or 4 *mandals* of different castes.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple crop of the District. It consists of two sorts, the *áus* or autumn rice, and the *áman* or winter rice which yields the great December harvest. These are sub-divided into 129 well recognised, and many minor varieties. After the *áus* rice is reaped in August and September, a cold-weather crop of pulses or oil-seeds is grown in the same field. In the neighbourhood of the city, large quantities of vegetables and fruits are raised for the Calcutta market. Indigo cultivation has greatly decreased of late years, and has now (1885) nearly died out. No statistics are available, showing the area

under different crops, and the only existing return of the cultivated and uncultivated area is that taken at the time of the Revenue Survey (1846–51). At that time, the area of the District, exclusive of Calcutta and the Sundarbans, was returned at 1,437,440 acres, or 2246 square miles (as against its present area of 2536 square miles). Of the area in 1851, 878,528 acres were returned as under cultivation; 200,512 acres as cultivable, but uncultivated; and 358,400 acres as village sites, roads, rivers, jungle, etc. The out-turn of rice from fairly good land is about 22 cwts. per acre; value on the field, £2, 2s. A second crop of pulses or oil-seeds raised on *áus* lands yields about £1, 10s. additional. A second crop of about the same value is also obtained from jute land. Rotation of crops is not practised, nor is the land allowed to remain fallow. Irrigation is seldom resorted to; and manure is used only for the more expensive crops, such as sugar-cane, tobacco, *pán*, etc.

A holding above 33 acres in extent would be considered a large farm, and anything below 3⅓ acres a very small one. A fair-sized, comfortable holding for a husbandman cultivating his own lands would be about 17 or 18 acres; the majority of the holdings are of much smaller extent. A single pair of oxen cannot plough more than 5 acres. A small holding of this size would not make a peasant so well off as a respectable retail shopkeeper in a village, nor would it enable him to live as well as a man earning 16s. a month in wages. The condition of the peasantry has greatly improved of late years, owing to the rise in value of agricultural produce; and they have ceased, as a rule, to be in debt to the village *mahájan*. Most of the land is held by husbandmen possessing occupancy rights. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land are returned as follow:—*Bastu* or homestead land, 12s. to £1, 4s.; *udbastu* or lands surrounding the homestead, and *bághát* or garden land, same rates as above; *khar* or thatching grass lands, 12s. to 15s.; *baraj* or *pán* gardens, £1, 1s.; tobacco and sugar-cane lands, 15s. to 18s.; *áus* rice land growing second crop, 6s. to 18s.; *áman* or winter rice land, 6s. to £1, 4s.

Wages and prices are reported to have nearly trebled since 1830, and to have doubled since 1857. Increased rates of wages have developed a tendency towards the growth of a community of day-labourers neither possessing nor renting land. In every village there exists a class of persons called *majurs*, or day-labourers, who cultivate the lands of others, and receive daily wages in money. Another class of labourers, called *dauliás*, annually migrate into the Sundarbans during the reaping season, and return to their homes after the harvest is over. They are paid in kind, at the rate of one bundle of paddy, or unhusked rice, for every twenty bundles cut by them. Each bundle contains a little over three pounds. Those who cultivate the lands of others

are sometimes paid by a one-half share of the crop, but they generally also hold some lands of their own in the village. In such cases, the seed and cattle are found by the person cultivating the field, the landlord merely giving the land. Women are never employed in the fields, and children rarely.

Prices of food-grains and agricultural produce have risen in similar proportion to the wages of labour. The ordinary prices of food-grain in 1870 were as follow:—Best rice, Rs. 2. 8. a *maund*, or 6s. 10d. a cwt.; common rice, Rs. 2. 3. a *maund*, or 6s. a cwt.; best unhusked rice, Rs. 1. 4. a *maund*, or 3s. 5½d. a cwt.; common unhusked rice, 14 *ánnás* a *maund*, or 2s. 4½d. a cwt. In 1883–84, a year of deficient rainfall generally throughout Bengal, the price of common rice fluctuated from 12½ to 25 *sers* per rupee, or from 9s. to 4s. 6d. per cwt.; as against from 16 to 32 *sers* per rupee, or from 7s. to 3s. 6d. per cwt. in 1882–83. The high prices in 1883–84 were not felt by the cultivators, as the local harvest was an average one, and hardly even by the labouring classes.

Natural Calamities.—Floods on such a scale as to seriously affect the crops, but not to cause their general destruction, occurred in the years 1823, 1838, 1856, 1864, 1868, and 1871. A more complete destruction of the crops was caused by the drought of 1865; but the great famine of the following year did not very seriously affect this District, and the mortality from direct starvation was small. Symptoms of distress were first noticed in October 1865; prices rose rapidly, and relief operations were undertaken in May 1866. Work, principally in the shape of road-making, was provided for those who were able to labour. Gratuitous relief was afforded in money, food, and grain, from 19 relief centres, till the 1st December, when the harvesting of a good crop put an end to the necessity for relief. The maximum price of common rice, in 1866, was Rs. 6 a *maund*, or 16s. 4d. a cwt. Famine rates may be considered to be reached when ordinary coarse rice is selling at Rs. 3. 12. a *maund*, or 10s. 3d. a cwt.; at this price the wages of a day-labourer would not suffice to support himself, wife, and one child. If the December crop has failed, and rice reaches Rs. 2. 8. a *maund*, or 6s. 9d. per cwt., in January, famine may be feared in spring. The means of communication in the Twenty-four Parganás are, however, sufficient to avert the extremity of famine by importation from other tracts, and no part of the District is in danger of isolation.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of permanent markets in the towns and fairs. Principal exports—rice, sugar, *pán* leaf, tobacco, vegetables, fish, pottery, bamboo mats, etc. Imports—pulses of all kinds, oil-seeds, spices, turmeric, chillies, *ghí*, cloth, cotton, refined sugar, iron, *sál* timber, brass utensils, lime, etc. The exports of the Twenty-four Parganás consider-

ably exceed the imports. The rural manufactures consist of sugar-making, both from the cane and also from the date palm; cotton curtains; brass and iron work, particularly padlocks and keys at Nátágarh and Ardabak, and iron bars, beams, scales, etc. at Páníhátí; horn sticks at Kálíganj; boats, principally in the Sundarbans; different sorts of cotton and *tasar* silk cloth at Sátgachhiá. Cotton and jute mills are numerous near Calcutta.

There were, in 1883, 1065 miles of road in the District, of which 974 miles were maintained from imperial funds, and 91 miles from local sources. The canals have been previously mentioned. The Eastern Bengal Railway has its principal terminus at Siáldah, just outside the municipal limits of Calcutta, and a branch at Chitpur for delivery of goods. It runs northwards through the Twenty-four Parganás parallel with the Húglí, and leaves the District at Bezpur village near Káncharapárá station. From this point it is continued to Goálanda on the Ganges. It connects with the Northern Bengal State Railway on the other side of the river, at Poradaha station, 103 miles from Calcutta. The Calcutta and South-Eastern State Railway runs from Siáldah to Port Canning, a distance of 28 miles. It was originally constructed by a guaranteed company; but in 1868, as the line did not pay its expenses, it was taken over by Government. Its traffic is small, and consists principally in the carriage of vegetables and firewood for the Calcutta market. The recently constructed Bengal Central Railway starts from the Eastern Bengal line at Dum Dum, and runs through the Twenty-four Parganás for a distance of 35 miles to Gobardanga, and thence through Jessor and Khulná Districts to its terminus at Khulná town, a distance of 109 miles from Calcutta. A new line of State railway was opened in 1884 to Diamond Harbour, from the Sonápur station of the Calcutta and South-Eastern Railway, a distance of 38 miles from Calcutta, or 28 miles from the junction station. Two vernacular periodicals were published in 1882 in the Twenty-four Parganás (outside Calcutta)—the *Som Prakás*, a weekly newspaper, and the *Banga Darsan*, a monthly periodical of literature and fiction.

Administration.—Five covenanted civilians have administrative charge of the District, with a Collector-Magistrate at their head. In 1884, they and their native subordinates presided over 21 magisterial, and 21 revenue and civil courts. In 1790, the net revenue of the District amounted to £91,123, and the expenditure to only £6991. In 1870, after the area had been about doubled by transfers from Nadiyá and Jessor, the net revenue stood at £321,483, and the expenditure at £79,958. In 1883–84, after the transfer of Sátkhirá Sub-division to the new District of Khulná, the six main items of revenue aggregated £311,927, made up as follows:—Land revenue, £146,358; excise, £40,093; stamps, £54,333; registration, £5684; road cess, £10,249;

and municipal taxes, £55,210. The civil expenditure of the District in 1883–84 amounted to £82,428. For police purposes, the District is divided into 25 police circles (*thánás*), exclusive of Calcutta and its suburbs. In 1883, the regular and town police force numbered 2029 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £22,932. There was also a rural police or village watch of 3322 men, costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £17,200. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 5351 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 0·4 square mile of the area, and to every 302 persons of the population. The estimated total cost was £40,132, equal to an average of £19, 2s. 9d. per square mile of area, and 6d. per head of population. The number of persons in the Twenty-four Parganás convicted of any offence, great or small, in 1883, was 4513, being 1 person to every 358 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. Excluding the Calcutta jail, the Twenty-four Parganás contain 2 central jails for long-term male and female prisoners from other Districts. For local short-term prisoners, there is the District jail at Bárásat and 7 Sub-divisional lock-ups. Daily average number of prisoners in the District and central jails (1883–84), males 1980, and females 136. The subordinate prisons contained a daily average of 93 prisoners, of whom 1 was female.

Education has widely spread of late years. In 1856–57, excluding Calcutta, there were only 38 schools in the District receiving Government aid, attended by 4041 pupils. At the close of the year 1872–73, after the introduction of Sir George Campbell's educational reforms, by which State supervision was extended to many hitherto unaided village schools, there were 743 schools receiving State grants, attended by 29,787 pupils, besides 369 unaided schools, with 10,443 pupils, making a total of 1112 schools, with 40,230 pupils. By 1883–84, when Sir George Campbell's reforms had received full development, there were (exclusive of Calcutta and suburbs) about 1500 schools under Government inspection, attended by 52,000 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 51,055 males and 1374 females as under instruction, besides 107,163 males and 2515 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

The District is divided into 7 administrative Sub-divisions (or sub-Districts), 25 police circles (*thánás*), and 65 Fiscal Divisions (*parganás*).

Medical Aspects.—The year is divided into three seasons—the hot, from the middle of March till about the middle of June, when the rainy season sets in, and lasts till October; the cold weather occupies the intervening months till the ensuing March. Monthly mean temperature at the observatory at Ságar Island, for the fourteen years ending 1881—Jan. 68·6° F.; Feb. 74·0°; March, 80·5°; April, 84·2°; May,

85·7°; June, 85·6°; July, 83·7°; Aug. 83·5°; Sept. 83·4°; Oct. 81·0°; Nov. 74·7°; Dec. 68·0°; average for the year, 79·4° F. The average annual rainfall at Ságar Island at the mouth of the Húgli, during the fifteen years ending 1881, was 73·85 inches; the average at Calcutta, spread over a period of 53 years, was 65·65 inches. The prevailing diseases of the District are cholera, intermittent and remittent fevers, diarrhœa, and dysentery. Sixteen charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief in 1883 to 936 in-door and 55,341 out-door patients (exclusive of Calcutta). Two central lunatic asylums, one for Europeans and Eurasians, and another for natives, are situated in the Twenty-four Parganás. Cattle epidemics occasionally occur, and it is estimated that an outbreak of rinderpest in 1868 caused the loss of 26,151 head of cattle. [For further information regarding the Twenty-four Parganás, see *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. i. pp. 17–281 (London, Trübner & Co., 1875); the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bengal Government.]

Tyamgondal. — Town and municipality in Bangalore District, Mysore State, Southern India. Lat. 13° 13′ N., long. 77° 22′ E. Population (1881) 3299. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £71. A centre of trade, formed since the abandonment of the old town of Nijagal, and now the residence of many merchants and dealers in grain. The waters of the Kumadvati river have been intercepted in large tanks.

U.

Ubauro.—*Táluk* of Rohri Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 450 square miles. Population (1881) 39,918, namely, males 21,498, and females 18,420; occupying 7823 houses, in 1 town and 94 villages. Muhammadans number 33,374; Hindus, 5274; non-Hindu aborigines, 945; Sikhs, 285; and Christians, 40. In 1882–83, the area assessed for land revenue was 28,857 acres; area under actual cultivation, 25,336 acres. In 1883, the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*tháṇás*), 7; regular police, 37 men. Revenue, £7008.

Ubauro.—Town in Rohri Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Ubauro *táluk*. Lat. 28° 11′ N., long. 69° 30′ E.; 70 miles from Rohri. Contains the usual public buildings. Population (1881) 2267. Trade in grain, oil, cotton, *ghí*, etc. There is an ancient mosque here, said to have been erected in 1552 A.D. The town itself dates from about 987. It is the head-quarters of the Dhar tribe, who are reported to have come from Rájputána about 1150.

Uchad.—Petty State in Sankhera Mehwás, Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 8½ square miles. The present chief is called Daima Jitamia. The revenue is estimated at £985, and a tribute of £88, 6s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Uchahara (*Unchahra, Ucheyra*).—Native State under the political superintendence of Bághelkhand Agency, Central India.—*See* NAGODE.

Uchh.—Ancient town in Baháwalpur State, Punjab; situated on the eastern bank of the Panjnád river, 70 miles south-south-west of Múltán, and 40 miles north-east of the present confluence of the Panjnád with the Indus at Mithánkot. Lat. 29° 13′ N., long. 71° 9′ E. General Cunningham has identified Uchh with the city which Alexander the Great built near the meeting of the Punjab rivers. He believes that it is also the town mentioned by Rashid-ud-dín as the capital of one of the four principalities of Sind under Ayand, the son of Kafand. Uchh was captured by Mahmúd of Ghazní, and by Muhammad Ghori, and was the chief city of Upper Sind under Násir-ud-dín Kubáchah. It subsequently formed part of the independent kingdom of Múltán, and after many vicissitudes was permanently annexed to the Mughal Empire under Akbar, being included by Abul Fazl among the separate Districts of the Subah of Múltán. General Cunningham has compiled an interesting account of the operations of Alexander in the country around Uchh (*Ancient Geography of India*, pp. 242–248, ed. 1871). Uchh is now an agglomeration of ruins representing successive cities built at widely different dates. The high respect in which the site is held by the Muhammadans bears witness alike to the antiquity of the town and to the great names with which it is associated in Musalmán history.

Udaipur (or *Mewár*). — Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Mewár Agency. Bounded on the north by the British territory of Ajmere-Merwára; on the east by the Native States of Búndi, Kotah, Sindhia's Districts of Jáwad and Nimach, the Nimbhera District of Tonk, and Partábgarh; on the south by Banswára, Dungarpur, and Partábgarh; on the south-west by the Mahi Kántha territory of Gujarát; and on the west by the Aravalli hills separating it from Márwár and Sirohi. The State of Kotah only touches a projecting point at Bhainsrorgarh, south of which lies Holkar's District of Rámpura. To the south-east the territories of several States interlace; and portions of Tonk, Gwalior, and Indore are encircled on all sides by Mewár territory. A number of villages belonging to Sindhia, separated from each other by various distances, and constituting the *parganá* of Gangápur, lie in the very centre of Mewár; while the small *parganá* of Palsora, 12 miles south-east of Nimach, is the only part of Mewár entirely cut off from the main body of the State. Udaipur extends from 23° 49′ to 25° 58′ N. lat., and from 73° 7′ to 75° 51′ E. long.

Its extreme length from north to south is about 148 miles; and extreme breadth from east to west 163 miles, with a total area of 12,670 square miles. The total population, according to the Census of 1881, was returned at 1,494,220 souls.

Physical Aspects.—The northern and eastern portions of the State comprise generally an elevated plateau of fine open undulating country sloping gradually to the north-east; while in the south and west the country is entirely covered with rocks and hills, and dense jungle. The whole of the mountainous country, from the borders of Dungarpur on the south to the confines of Sirohi on the west, is politically known as the Hill Tracts of Mewár, and embraces the wildest portion of the Aravalli mountains, which form the great feature of Mewár. This range of hills enters Mewár from Merwára and Dewair in lat. 25° 24′, and continuing thence, extends over the south-western and southern portions of the State, where it attains a breadth of about 60 miles. These mountains are chiefly of granite, the valleys being of variegated quartz. Slate is found in places. The chief metal found is iron, mines of which are worked in the eastern portion of the State, but not to any great extent. Tin and zinc were formerly excavated at Jáwar, 24 miles south of Udaipur city, and yielded a considerable profit; but the mines now remain unworked. Copper and lead are also found in some places. Of precious stones, garnets and carbuncles are procurable in the Bhílwára tract. The general inclination of the country is from south-west to north-east, as indicated by the course of the principal river—the Banás and its numerous feeders flowing from the base of the Aravalli range. To the south and west of the capital many streams take their rise, which mostly flow through Mahi Kántha southwards into the Sabarmatí river.

There are numerous lakes and tanks throughout the State, some being of great magnitude. The finest are the Dhebar or Jaisamand, the Rájnagar or Rájsamand, and the Udai Ságar. The first-named, which is situated some 20 miles to the south-east of Udaipur city, is perhaps the largest sheet of artificial water in the world. It is about 9 miles long by 5 miles broad, and covers an area of nearly 21 square miles. The masonry dam is 1000 feet long by 95 feet high, 50 feet wide at the base and 15 feet at the top. The second lake, situated about 25 miles north of the capital, is 3 miles long and 1½ miles wide, and covers an area of 2·9 square miles. It took seven years to build, and is said to have cost 96 *lákhs* (£960,000). The third, situated 5 miles east of the capital, is nearly the same size, viz. 2½ miles long by 1½ miles wide; its area is 2 square miles. The Pachola lake, at the capital, is 2¼ miles long by 1¼ broad, with an area of 1·2 square miles. These four lakes alone hold in their basins the drainage of 1127 square miles of country.

Population. — The Census of 1881 returned the population at 1,494,220, occupying 324,136 houses, in 7 towns and 5715 villages. Area, 12,670 square miles. Density of population, 117·93 persons per square mile; number of towns or villages per square mile, 45·16; of houses per square mile, 25·58; of persons per house, 4·61. Classified according to sex, there were—males 772,685, and females 670,459, exclusive of the 51,076 Bhíls, undetermined as to sex.

Classified according to religion, Hindus number 1,321,521; Jains, 78,171; Muhammadans, 43,322; Christians, 130; and Bhíls, 51,076. The Hindus and Jains were thus divided by caste and social distinction —Bráhmans, 114,073; Rájputs, 126,086; Mahájans, 104,877; Játs, 70,610; Kacths, 1494; and 'others,' 982,552. The Muhammadans classified by tribe were — Shaikhs, 13,595; Patháns, 10,986; Sayyids, 2917; Mughals, 405; and 'others,' 15,419. Of the total number of Rájputs, 58,751 belong to the Sesodia clan from which the ruling family is sprung.

There are three tribes who may be regarded as aborigines, occupying the several ranges of hills, viz. the Mhairs on the north-west, the Bhíls on the south, and the Minás on the north-east. The Mhairs and Minás live in villages; but the Bhíls generally occupy a *pál*, that is, a number of houses, each built upon a hillock, at some little distance from its neighbour. A *pál*, therefore, may cover several square miles of ground. The object of the Bhíls in thus building their dwellings on isolated hillocks is to render it impossible to surprise a whole village at once. A single individual may be surprised and arrested. But the warning cry which he will utter gives the alarm to the whole community. In a few minutes, the war-cry is taken up from hill-top to hill-top, and the whole country suddenly swarms with half-naked savages armed and prepared to attack the intruder.

In the plains, cotton, oil-seeds, *jodr* (Sorghum vulgare), *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), and Indian corn are sown in the rains; in the cold weather, barley, gram, wheat, sugar-cane, opium, and tobacco.

Camels and cattle are said not to be numerous; sheep and goats are very plentiful. Good horses are scarce.

History.—The Udaipur family is the highest in rank and dignity among the Rájput chiefs of India, being the elder branch of the *Surya Vansa*, or 'Children of the Sun.' The ruling chief is considered by Hindus to be the direct representative of Ráma, from whom was descended Kanak Sen, who was the founder of the Udaipur family about 144 A.D. The families of Dungarpur, Bánswára, and Partábgarh are offshoots from the same line. No State in India made a more courageous or prolonged resistance to the Muhammadans than Udaipur. It is the boast of the family that they never gave a daughter in marriage to any of the Muhammadan Emperors. They belong to the Sesodia

sept of the great Gehlot clan, often called 'the noblest of the Rájputs.' The foundation of the Gehlot dynasty in Rájputána was effected by Bappa Ráwal, who is said to have established himself in Chittor and Mewár in 728 A.D. It was by this prince that Muhammad Kásim, the lieutenant of the Khálif Wálid, is supposed to have been defeated upon his advance to Chittor after the conquest of Sind; but the story of the advance of the Sind Arabs into Central India is of dubious authenticity. Between Bappa and the accession of Samarsi to the throne of Udaipur, a period somewhat exceeding four centuries intervened. In 1193, the sovereignty of Chittor was given to the younger branch; the elder having been expelled, founded the city of Dungarpur in the wilderness, and became the ancestor of the ruling family of that State.

In 1201, Rahup was in possession of Chittor. He changed the title of his family and tribe from the clan name of Gehlot to the sub-divisional name of Sesodia; and that of its prince from Ráwal to Ráná. During the next fifty years, from Rahup to Lakumsi, nine princes of Chittor were installed. In the rule of this last-named prince (1275 to 1290), Alá-ud-dín besieged Chittor; and in 1303 the imperial forces captured and sacked it. It was, however, almost immediately afterwards recovered by Hamír, who then ruled in Mewár. The chroniclers of Mewár, quoted by Tod (*Annals of Rájásthán*), dwell with pride on the exploits of the great Ráná Hamír. According to these, he is said to have marched to meet Mahmúd, who was advancing to recover his lost possessions, to have defeated and taken prisoner the Emperor, and not to have liberated him till he had agreed to the surrender of Ajmere, Ranthambor, Nagar, and other towns. He is also reported to have received homage from the princes of Márwár, Jaipur, Búndi, and Gwalior, and to have rendered the power of Udaipur as solid and extensive as it had been before the Musalmán occupation of Hindustán. From the death of Hamír, for a century and a half the arms of Mewár were successful, until the reign of Sanga, the competitor of Bábar, when Mewár had reached the summit of its prosperity. Its boundaries were then the Píla-khál ('yellow rivulet'), near Biana, on the north; the Sind river on the east; Málwá on the south; and an impenetrable barrier of hills on the west—thus either ruling directly or exercising overlordship over the major part of Rájputána.

Such was the condition of Udaipur at the date of the Emperor Bábar's invasion. The Tartar prince having defeated Ibráhím Lodi, and secured Agra and Delhi, turned his arms against Ráná Sanga of Chittor. Sanga marched towards Agra; the opposing forces met between Biana and Sikri (Fatehpur). A successful attack by the Rájput troops on the Tartar advance guard forced the Muhammadans, for their own security, to throw up entrenchments, in which Bábar was

blockaded for about a fortnight. But on the 15th of March 1527, Bábar drew up his army in front of the entrenchments. A desperate conflict ensued for several hours, in which the Musalmáns ultimately obtained a decisive victory. Ráná Sanga retired with the wreck of his gallant army towards the hills, resolved never to enter his capital except in triumph. He did not long survive his defeat, being succeeded in 1530 by his son Ráná Ratná, who ruled five years, and lost his life in a personal encounter with the prince of Búndi. He was succeeded by his brother Vikramáditya. This prince, by his haughty demeanour, alienated the attachment of his vassals. Bahádur, the Sultán of Gujarát, taking advantage of their disaffection, invaded Mewár, defeated the Ráná, and laid siege to Chittor. This sacred fortress was long and bravely defended, and when further opposition became vain, 1300 females were immolated; then throwing open the gates, the survivors of the devoted garrison rushed upon the enemy, and sold their lives at the highest price. The advance of Humáyún, son of Bábar, compelled Bahádur to retire towards Gujarát. Ráná Vikramáditya was then restored to his capital, but was shortly after deposed and put to death by his nobles.

After a short usurpation by Banbir, a spurious member of the family, the throne of Mewár was occupied by Ráná Udai Singh, the youngest son of Ráná Sanga. During his rule in 1568, Chittor was taken by the Emperor Akbar, with great slaughter. On the loss of his capital, the Ráná retired to the valley of the Girwa in the Arávalli hills, where he founded the city of Udaipur, henceforth the capital of Mewár. Udai Singh, who survived the loss of Chittor only four years, was succeeded in 1572 by his son Partáb, who disdained submission to the conqueror. After sustaining repeated defeats, Partáb fled into the deserts towards Sind. Fortune suddenly turned in his favour. By the help of some money supplied by his minister, Bhama Sah, he collected his straggling adherents, surprised and cut to pieces the imperial forces at Dewair, and followed up his advantage with such celerity and energy, that in a short campaign he recovered nearly all Mewár, of which he retained undisturbed possession until his death. Partáb was succeeded by his son Umra, who enjoyed tranquillity during the remainder of Akbar's reign.

But Akbar's successor, Jahángír, determined upon the entire subjugation of Mewár. In prosecuting this design, he was twice defeated by Ráná Umra. He then tried the experiment of setting up Sugra, the brother of the late Ráná Partáb, in opposition to his nephew Umra. After seven years, Sugra, ashamed of his own apostasy from the national cause, put Ráná Umra in possession of the ancient capital. On this, Jahángír equipped an overwhelming force to crush the Ráná. This army, which was commanded by Parwíz, the Emperor's son, was

entangled in the pass of Khamnor, and suffered a complete defeat. Jahángír then despatched Mahábat Khán, the ablest of his generals, to take command. Mahábat's success falling far short of the Emperor's expectations, he removed the imperial camp to Ajmere, with the avowed intention of placing himself at the head of the troops employed against the Ráná. The army was, however, really commanded by his son Sultán Khurram, afterwards Sháh Jahán. Although the Rájputs had generally been successful in battle, yet their diminished numbers rendered further opposition to the colossal power of the empire hopeless. In this state of things, Ráná Umra made his submission to the Emperor in 1613. He was magnanimously treated by Jahángír, who lavished honours and distinctions upon him and his son Karran Singh. Ráná Umra's proud spirit could not brook dependence, however disguised; and in 1616 he abdicated in favour of his son Karran, who died in 1628, and was succeeded by his son Jagat Singh, who was succeeded by his son Ráj Singh in 1654. Sháh Jahán's mother having been a princess of the house of Jaipur, he was well disposed towards the Rájputs, who enjoyed peace during his reign.

Aurangzeb's attempt to impose a capitation tax on Hindus was successfully resisted by the Rájputs, who defeated the imperial armies in several sanguinary conflicts. An accommodation was, however, effected in 1681, by which the Emperor relinquished the odious tax. In the same year, Ráná Ráj Singh died of his wounds, and was succeeded by his son Jai Singh, who ruled in peace twenty years. He was succeeded by his son Umra, who took an active part in the quarrels between the sons of Aurangzeb. Intolerance had rendered the Emperor obnoxious to the Rájputs, and led to the formation of a confederacy by the rulers of Márwár, Mewár, and Jaipur (Amber), for the purpose of throwing off Muhammadan supremacy. In 1713, during the reign of the Emperor Farukh Siyyar, the confederates commenced their operations, by expelling the Mughal officers and razing the mosques which had been erected upon the sites of Hindu temples. This triple confederacy was but of short duration. Ajit, Rájá of Márwár, made separate terms with the Emperor, to whom he gave a daughter in marriage; and Ráná Umra soon afterwards concluded a treaty with the Emperor, which, though it admitted subordination, was in all other respects favourable. Umra died in 1716, and was succeeded by Sangram Singh, in whose time the power of the Mughal Empire rapidly declined, and the Maráthás began to overrun Central India. Sangram was succeeded by his son Jagat Singh II. The Emperor having ceded the *chauth* (or one-fourth of the revenue) to the Maráthás, who were already in possession of Málwá and Gujarát, they exacted it from the States of Rájputána as being dependencies of the Empire. In 1736, Peshwá Báji Ráo concluded a treaty with the Ráná, by

which the latter was compelled to pay *chauth* to the amount of £16,000.

The Udaipur family refused to intermarry with Rájput families who had given daughters in marriage to the Mughal Emperors. This refusal was keenly felt by the other Rájputs. The re-admission to the honour of matrimonial connection with the Udaipur family was always stipulated in the coalitions formed by the Rájput chiefs against the Mughals; and it was further agreed that the sons of Udaipur princesses should succeed the father in preference to elder sons by other mothers. This led to family dissensions, which the Maráthás artfully turned to their own advantage. On the death of Sawal Jai Singh of Jaipur in 1743, his eldest son, Isri Singh, was proclaimed Rájá; but a strong party supported the claim of Madhu Singh, a younger son by the sister of the Ráná of Udaipur, who espoused the cause of his nephew, while Isri Singh obtained assistance from Sindhia. In an engagement which took place in 1747, the Ráná was defeated. He then called in the aid of Holkar, under an engagement to pay him £640,000 on the deposition of Isri Singh. A dose of poison gave Madhu Singh the throne, and Holkar the money. Ráná Jagat Singh died in 1752, and was succeeded by his son Partáb Singh, during whose short rule of three years Mewár was plundered by the Maráthás.

He was succeeded by his son Ráná Ráj Singh, who ruled seven years, during which the ravages and exactions of the Maráthás continued. He was succeeded by his uncle Ráná Ursi in 1762. This Ráná made himself unpopular with most of his chiefs, who formed a party to depose him and to set up a youth named Ratná Singh, alleged to be a posthumous son of the late Ráná. A civil war ensued. Both parties applied for assistance to the Maráthás, who were ever ready to act as armed arbitrators. Sindhia took the part of the pretender. In a severe battle fought near Ujjain about 1768, the Ráná was defeated. Sindhia laid siege to Udaipur, which would have fallen, but for the talent and energy of the Diwán, Umra Chand Barwá. After a protracted siege, Sindhia agreed to abandon the pretender on the payment of £700,000. After the treaty had been signed, Sindhia, believing he could dictate any terms, demanded 20 *lákhs* (£200,000) more. Umra indignantly tore up the treaty, and sent the fragments with defiance to Sindhia, who, alarmed at the resolute spirit thus evinced by the garrison, made overtures for a renewal of negotiations. Umra replied that he must deduct from the original terms the expense that had been occasioned by the bad faith of the Maráthás. At length Sindhia accepted £635,000, of which £330,000 was paid, and the Districts of Jawad Jiram, Nimach, and Marwun were mortgaged for the remainder. These lands have never been recovered by Mewár. Marwun was made over to Holkar, who in 1775 extorted from the

Ráná the surrender of the District of Nimbhera. The Province of Godwár was about the same time granted on feudal tenure to Jodhpur, and lost to Merwár.

Ráná Ursi was murdered by the heir-apparent of Búndi while on a hunting excursion. He was succeeded by his son Ráná Hamír, a minor. His mother's ambition for power, and the feuds among the chiefs, had well-nigh dissolved the Government. Regardless of previous experience, the Ráni-mother in 1775 invited the aid of Sindhia to reduce the Begun chief, who had revolted and usurped State lands. Sindhia exacted for his own benefit a fine of £120,000 from the refractory chiefs, and took possession of the Districts of Ratangarh, Kheri, and Singoli, and made over those of Irmia, Játh, Bichor, and Naddomay to Holkar. Up to this period, the Maráthás had extorted from Mewár £1,810,000, and territory to the annual value of £280,000. In 1778, the young Ráná died, and was succeeded by his brother, Bhím Singh. The commencement of his rule was marked by sanguinary feuds among his chiefs, which rendered the country an easy prey to the insatiable rapacity of the Maráthás, who for their own aggrandizement identified themselves with all parties by turns. Mewár was devastated alternately by Sindhia and Holkar, until it was rendered almost desolate.

The suit of the Rájá of Jaipur for the hand of the Princess Kishna Kuar of Udaipur, had been favourably received by her father. But Rájá Mán Singh of Márwár also advanced pretensions to the lady, on the plea that she had been betrothed to his predecessor, and that the engagement was with the State and not the individual ruler. This led to a ruinous war between Márwár and Jaipur. The minister of Udaipur was induced to advise the Ráná to sacrifice his daughter to the peace of Rájputána. The father at last yielded, and poison was administered to the ill-fated princess. From this time, 1806 to 1817, Mewár continued to be ravaged by the Maráthás, and by the Pindhári leader Amír Khán. On the suppression in 1817 of the predatory system which had prevailed in Central India, it was resolved, chiefly with a view to prevent its revival, to extend British influence and protection over the States of Rájputána. The chiefs were accordingly invited to ally themselves with the British Government, on the basis of acknowledging its supremacy and paying a certain tribute in return for external protection and internal independence. The Ráná of Udaipur eagerly embraced the invitation, and signed a treaty accordingly.

Mahárána Bhím Singh died in 1828, and was succeeded by his only son, Juwán Singh, who died in 1838, leaving no issue, and was succeeded by Sardár Singh, chief of Bagor, the nearest heir to the family. He died in 1842, and was succeeded by his younger and adopted brother, Mahárána Swarúp Singh, who was succeeded in 1861 by his nephew

and adopted son Sambhu Singh. The latter, dying in 1874, was succeeded by his first cousin Sujjan Singh, G.C.S.I., born in 1860, who died on 23rd December 1884. He was succeeded by Fateh Singh, the present Mahárána.

The feudatories of the State number 19 of the first rank, and 32 of the second. They enjoy rights and privileges which do not obtain in any other part of Rájputána. The pomp maintained at their own estates is almost an exact counterpart of that of their prince, and they exhibit few of the marks of vassalage observable at other courts in Rájputána. Only on particular festivals and solemnities do they join the chief's cavalcade. In *darbar*, they take rank above the heir-apparent, a custom unprecedented in India, and granted in consequence of an heir-apparent having attended the Mughal Emperor's court. When any of these feudatories enters the Mahárána's presence, the entire court rises.

The District of Merwára, inhabited by predatory tribes, and belonging partly to Udaipur, partly to Jodhpur, and partly to the British Government in virtue of its possession of Ajmere, was occupied by a British force in 1821. With a view to the pacification and improvement of the country, it was taken under British administration, and a local corps was raised from the Bhíls, towards the maintenance of which the State of Udaipur contributes £5000 yearly. In addition, tribute is paid to the British Government of £20,000. The total gross revenue of the State was estimated in 1875 at about £510,000, of which about £190,000 is enjoyed by feudatory chiefs, subject to the payment of *chatund* or contribution towards the expenditure and requirements of the State. Deducting these alienations and the religious endowments, British tribute, etc., there remains to the State about £180,000. The income of the State in 1883–84 (exclusive of the *jágírs* of the feudatory chiefs) was £264,691, and the expenditure £220,484, leaving a balance of income over expenditure of £44,207.

A road connecting the military stations of Nasírábád and Nimach passes through the State. From the city of Udaipur, a metalled road runs to Nimbhera, where it joins the Nimach and Nasirábád road. A fair-weather road has also been made from Udaipur city to the Dasuri Pass *viâ* Rájnagar (40 miles), total distance about 75 miles through the Arávalli range. Prior to the construction of this pass, the Arávallis formed an almost impassable barrier to all wheeled carriages from Barh near Ajmere to the south of Sirohi, a distance of upwards of 250 miles. A metal road also connects Udaipur with Khárwára cantonment, the head-quarters of the Mewár Bhíl corps. The Málwá branch of the Rájputána-Málwá Railway on the metre gauge passes through the north-eastern part of the State. The late Mahárána had decided to construct a line of railway from Chittor station on the

Málwá line to Náthdwára and thence to Debari, an opening through the hills into the valley where the capital is situated.

At Udaipur city there is a school attended by boys, and a small one for girls. The English, Hindí, Persian, and Urdu languages are taught in different classes. There is also a hospital at Udaipur city, and vaccination is being gradually introduced.

The military force of the State consists of 464 guns of all calibre (including all the old guns in the forts), 1338 artillerymen, 6240 cavalry, and 15,100 infantry. The Maháráná of Udaipur is entitled to a salute of 19 guns, but the late ruler was granted a personal salute of 21 guns.

Udaipur (*Oodeypore*, '*City of Sunrise*').—Capital of the Native State of Mewár or Udaipur in Rájputána; situated in lat. 24° 35′ 19″ N., and long. 73° 43′ 23″ E. Population (1881) 38,214, namely, males 20,168, and females 18,046. Hindus number 30,156, and Muhammadans 8058. The city of Udaipur, with its palace placed on a low ridge overlooking a romantic lake facing wooded hills, is one of the most beautiful and picturesque in India. To this place, after the capture of Chittor by Akbar in 1568 A.D., the Maháráná Udai Singh of Mewár repaired, and built himself a refuge among the mountains. Some years previously he had formed the lake, still called after him, Udai Ságar, at the entrance to the valley; he then raised a dyke, which formed the Pachola lake, and built a small palace on the adjoining hills, around which edifices soon arose; this place he called after his own name. In 1577, in the time of the famous Maháráná Partáb Singh, Udaipur was for a time occupied by the Mughal troops of Akbar under Mahábát Khán; but Partáb regained possession of his capital in 1586. In 1769, the city was besieged by the Maráthás under Mádhují Sindhia; and was only saved from capture by the vigour of the *díwán*, Umra Chand Barwá, and by the cession of some important tracts of territory. The city has little or no trade of its own, and is solely maintained by the expenditure of the court.

The royal palace at Udaipur is thus described by Tod (*Annals of Rájasthán*), vol. i. pp. 406, 407: 'The palace is a most imposing pile, of a regular form, built of granite and marble, rising at least 100 feet from the ground, and flanked with octagonal towers, crowned with cupolas. Although built at various periods, uniformity of design has been very well preserved; nor is there in the East a more striking or majestic structure. It stands upon the very crest of a ridge running parallel to, but considerably elevated above, the margin of the lake. The terrace which is at the east and chief front of the palace extends throughout its length, and is supported by a triple row of arches from the declivity of the ridge. The height of this arcaded wall is full 50 feet; and although all is hollow beneath, yet so admirably is it constructed, that an entire

range of stables is built on the extreme verge of the terrace, on which the whole personal force of the Ráná, elephants, horse, and foot, are often assembled. From this terrace, the city and the valley lie before the spectator, whose vision is bounded only by the hills shutting out the plains; while from the summit of the palace nothing obstructs its range over lake and mountain.' Udaipur is situated at an elevation of 2064 feet above sea-level.

Udaipur presents an imposing appearance when approached from the east. The palace of the Ráná and that of the heir-apparent, the great temple of Jagannáth, and the houses of the nobles, with their turrets and cupolas rising in airy elegance, afford a pleasing contrast to the heavy wall and pierced battlements of the city beneath. A chain of fortresses has been constructed about gunshot distance from the city wall, commanding every road leading thereto, which adds greatly to the effect of the landscape. These fortresses, however, all wear the same aspect of decay. In the middle of the Pachola lake stand the two water palaces, the Jagmandir and the Jagnewás, constructed by Ráná Jagat Singh in the middle of the 17th century. The latter, which covers four acres of ground, is built entirely of marble, often inlaid with mosaics. The walls are here and there covered with historical paintings and medallions in gypsum in considerable relief. Flower-gardens, baths, fountains, orange and lemon groves, shaded by palmyras and plantains, diversify the scene. The Jagmandir is noted as the asylum of Prince Kharram, afterwards the Emperor Sháh Jahán, while in revolt against his father Jahángír. Apartments in the palace were first assigned to him; but his followers little respecting Rájput prejudices, the island became his residence, on which a sumptuous edifice was raised, adorned with a lofty dome crowned with a crescent. Here the prince resided till a short time before his father's death. Here also several European families were lodged and hospitably entertained by Mahárána Swarúp Singh during the Mutiny.

At the village of Ar, or Ahar, the site of an ancient and ruined city, 3 miles east of the capital, is the Mahasatti, or cemetery, containing the cenotaphs of all the chiefs since the valley became their residence. Most of them mark the places where the chiefs have been burned with their wives and slave-girls, and there are rude effigies showing the number of women burnt with the chiefs; some of them are merely monuments of Ránás who died or were killed at a distance from their capital. That of the renowned Umra Singh is the most conspicuous; but the cenotaphs of all are very elegant. The entrance is by a gateway on the eastern face of a masonry wall surrounding the enclosure.

To the south, and immediately overlooking the city, which it commands, is the fortified hill of Eklingarh. An enormous piece of ordnance in this fort is said to have been mounted in 1770, during the

siege of Udaipur by Madhují Sindhia. At the foot of the southern slope of the hill lies the Gobardhán Belás, a country residence and farm-house of the chiefs.

Twelve miles to the north of Udaipur, situated in a narrow defile, is a shrine called Eklingjí, sacred to Mahádeo, or Iswara, the tutelary divinity of the Rájputs in Mewár, who is worshipped here under the epithet of Eklinga,—that is, with one *lingam* or *phallus*—or as Iswar Chaomukhi, the divinity represented by a bust with four faces. The fane is of white marble and ample dimensions, under an open vaulted temple, supported by columns; and fronting the four-faced divinity is the brazen bull Nanda, of the natural size. Within the quadrangle are miniature shrines containing some of the minor divinities. The Ránás of Mewár, as vice-regents of Siva, when visiting the temple, supersede the high priest in his duties, and perform the ceremonies. The shrine is endowed with 24 large villages from the State, besides lands from the chieftains. The lake near Eklingjí is very picturesque, with a collection of temples beautifully situated on the dam, and surrounded by hills. The town and shrine are situated in the valley some 300 or 400 yards from the lake, and a hundred feet below the level of its waters. Approaching Eklingjí from the north, a gateway is passed built across the mouth of a gorge in the hills, with a wall crowning the heights on either side; the road follows this gorge for about half a mile, the hills on either side rising perpendicularly to a height of about 100 feet above the road, till the back of the temples is reached.

Udaipur.—Native State in Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal, under the political superintendence of the Commissioner of Chutiá Nágpur and the Bengal Government; lies between 22° 3′ 30″ and 22° 47′ N. lat., and between 83° 4′ 30″ and 83° 49′ 30″ E. long. Udaipur is bounded on the north by Sargujá; on the east by the British District of Raipur in the Central Provinces, and the State of Jashpur; on the south by Raigarh; and on the west by the District of Biláspur. The State contains an area of 1055 square miles, with 196 villages and 6135 houses. Total population (1881) 33,955, namely, males 17,111, and females 16,844. Average density of population, 32·18 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·19; persons per village, 173; houses per square mile, 5·82; persons per house, 5·54. Hindus number 33,783, and Muhammadans 172.

The chief geological formation in the State is a coarse carboniferous sandstone. Gold and iron are found in small quantities; and within the boundaries of Udaipur lies a portion of one of the most extensive coal-fields in India, but no attempt has hitherto been made to work it. The only hill of any size is Lotta (2098 feet). The river Mánd rises near Girsa in Sargujá, and receiving the drainage of the southern part of the Máinpát plateau in that State,

flows through Udaipur in a winding course towards the south-west, and joins the Mahánadi in Raigarh. It is not navigable within the limits of Udaipur.

Udaipur, with the rest of the Sargujá group of States in Chutiá Nágpur, was ceded to the British Government by the provisional agreement concluded with Madhují Bhonsla (Apá Sáhib) in 1818, having formerly been an appanage of a younger branch of the ruling family in Sargujá. In 1852, the State escheated to Government. At the time of the Mutiny in 1857, the former chief and his brother (who had been convicted of manslaughter and sentenced to imprisonment) made their way back to Udaipur, and established a short-lived rule. In 1859, the survivor of the two brothers was captured, convicted of murder and rebellion, and transported for life to the Andaman Islands. Subsequently, in 1860, the State was conferred on a brother of the Rájá of Sargujá, who had done good service to the Government during the Mutiny. He pays a tribute of £53, 6s. 8d., and is also charged with some allowances to members of the former ruling family. He is bound to furnish, when required, a contingent for military service.

The chief town or village of Udaipur is Rábkob, situated on a picturesque bend of the Mánd river, near the centre of the State. On the summit of the cliff which here rises from the right bank of the river, is Sháhpur or Sáipur, the old castle of the Rájás of Udaipur, built in an almost impregnable position, at a height of 150 feet above the stream. There are at Rábkob a police station and a jail, maintained by the Rájá; also a large granary. Periodical markets are held here and at Dorki, on the right bank of the Mánd, 24 miles south of Rábkob. The chief exports of the State are lac (said to amount to 2000 *maunds* annually), cotton, resin, oil-seeds, rice, wild arrowroot, iron, and a small quantity of gold. The land tenure in villages under the direct management of the Rájá is on the *gáontiá* system, *see* GANGPUR. The police organization of the State is purely indigenous, and is for the most part worked by the Gond *jágírdárs* as a part of the service by which they hold their *jágírs*.

Udaipur.—Sub-division of Hill Tipperah State, Bengal; formed in 1874–75. Population (1881) 31,126, namely, males 17,409, and females 13,717. Muhammadans number 10,378; aboriginal tribes, 18,893; Hindus, 1854; and Christian, 1.

Udaipur.—Village in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal; situated in lat. 23° 31′ 25″ N., and long. 91° 31′ 10″ E., on the south or left bank of the Gúmti, a few miles lower down the river than Old Udaipur (*vide infra*), the former capital of the State, and the ancient residence of the Rájás, which is now deserted and overgrown by dense jungle. Udaipur was formerly the head-quarters of the Sub-division, which were, however, removed in 1877 to Sonámurá, on the opposite or north bank of the

Gúmti river. It is now but a small village, only of importance as a mart for large quantities of cotton, timber, and bamboos, which are brought down from the hills by the wild tribes and sold for money or bartered for tobacco, salt, and dried fish. The name Tripurá or Tipperah was probably given to this tract of country in honour of the temple at Udaipur, of which remains still exist. It ranks as the second *tirtha*, or sacred shrine, in this part of Bengal, and was dedicated either to Tripuradana, 'the sun-god,' or to Tripureswarí, 'the mistress of the three worlds.' The temple is visited annually by thousands of pilgrims.

Udaipur, Old.—Ruined town in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal, the ancient capital of Rájá Udai Mánikya, who reigned over this part of the country in the latter half of the 16th century; situated on the left bank of the Gúmti river, a few miles above the modern village of UDAIPUR. The palace and all the buildings connected with it have long been deserted, and are now overgrown by dense forest jungle, the wall which apparently once encircled the Rájá's residence being traced with difficulty amidst the profusion of vegetation. Within the enclosing wall there are still many houses in excellent preservation. Others again are fast falling to the ground, but enough remains to show their former strength, and the care with which they were constructed. The walls are rarely less than 4 feet in thickness, and the floors of most of the buildings are raised high above the ground; the brick foundation in one case having an elevation of about 10 feet. There is one two-storied building, with large doorways on each side of the upper storey, and on three sides of the lower storey. The doorways are arched, and the neat and simple carving above them has been almost unaffected by the length of time that the place has been deserted. Near this house are some large brick buildings, apparently monuments erected to the memory of deceased Rájás or Ránís. At a short distance from the ruins of the palace is a Sivaite temple, to which pilgrimages are still made by devout Hindus. Close to the temple are several small buildings, with square blocks of white stone sunk above the doorways, with Bengálí inscriptions. Hard by is an enormous tank full of clear water, and abounding in fish. Thick forest trees have now grown up on its banks, and give it the appearance of a huge oval-shaped lake in the midst of an almost impenetrable jungle.

Udaipur Chhota.—State and town in Rewá Kántha, Province of Gujarát, Bombay Presidency.—*See* CHHOTA UDAIPUR.

Udaiyárpálaiyam. — North-eastern *táluk* or Sub-division of Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency. Area, 762 square miles. Population (1881) 247,176, namely, males 122,569, and females 124,607; occupying 32,611 houses, in 2 towns and 439 villages. Hindus number 236,345; Christians, 8976; Muhammadans, 1852;

and 'others,' 3. The general aspect of the *táluk* is flat. The soil is for the most part a mixture of red sand and clay. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 11; regular police, 59 men. Land revenue, £24,652.

Udaiyárpálaiyam.—Town in Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Udaiyárpálaiyam *táluk*. Lat. 11° 11′ 20″ N., long. 79° 20′ E. Population (1881) 5703, namely, Hindus, 5318; Muhammadans, 369; and Christians, 16. Number of houses, 900. An agricultural and market town.

Udalgurí.—Village in the north-west of Darrang District, Assam, near the Bhután frontier, at which an annual fair is held for trade with the neighbouring hill tribes. The fair lasts for three or four weeks, during which time the Bhutiá chiefs come down to Tezpur to receive their stipulated presents. In 1881–82 it was estimated that the Bhutiás sold goods to the value of £23,530, chiefly ponies, blankets, salt, and wax; and took away goods valued at £7850, principally rice, cotton cloth, and brass-ware.

Udamalpet.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 583 square miles. Population (1881) 112,572, namely, males 53,986, and females 58,586; occupying 23,915 houses, in 1 town and 88 villages. Hindus number 108,447; Muhammadans, 3684; and Christians, 441. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 4; regular police, 35 men. Land revenue, £21,144.

Udamalpet.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Udamalpet *táluk*, with the usual courts. Lat. 10° 35′ 40″ N., long. 77° 17′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 5061, namely, Hindus, 4421; Muhammadans, 630; and Christians, 10. Number of houses, 855. Staging bungalow.

Udárband.—Village in Cachar District, Assam, where there is a *bázár*, formerly much frequented by the Nágás and other hill tribes, who brought down caoutchouc, cotton, and beeswax to barter for salt and hardware. The importance of this *bázár* has much decreased of late years, owing to the springing up of other markets farther to the north and closer to the hills. The largest of these is the Sálgangá *bázár* near the foot of the Nágá hills.

Udayagiri.—*Táluk* in the Agency Tract of Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area not returned. Population (1881) 55,154, namely, males 28,676, and females 26,478; occupying 13,955 houses, in 508 villages. Hindus number 55,151, nearly all Kandhs and Savars; and Muhammadans, 3.

Udayagiri.—Sandstone hill in Purí District, Bengal; rises abruptly out of the jungle, being separated from KHANDGIRI by a narrow gorge. Both these peaks are honeycombed with caves and temples cut out of

the solid rock. One cave at Udayagiri has been known from time immemorial as the Tiger Cave. It stands out from the hill in the form of a monstrous wild beast's jaw, with nose and eyes above, and the teeth overhanging the entrance to the cell. This Buddhist cave-dwelling perhaps dates from 300 B.C.

Udayagiri.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 850 square miles. Population (1881) 86,326, namely, males 43,808, and females 42,518; occupying 16,650 houses, in 1 town and 133 villages. Hindus number 80,181; Muhammadans, 5957; and Christians, 188. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 11; regular police, 77 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 23. Land revenue, £6108.

Udayagiri (or *Kondayapalem*).—Village and hill in Nellore District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Udayagiri *táluk*. Lat. 14° 52′ N., long. 79° 19′ E. Population (1881) 3885, namely, Hindus 2762, and Muhammadans 1123. The hill, which was once strongly fortified, is quite isolated, being 8 miles from the main chain of the Eastern Ghâts; 3079 feet above sea-level. Udayagiri was formerly a place of importance, and the capital of a small kingdom, founded by Languliya Gajapati in the 14th century, one of whose descendants was defeated by Krishna Ráya in 1509. From that date it was held by semi-independent chiefs, who repeatedly rebelled against the central authority at Golconda. It afterwards became a *jágír* under the Nawáb of Arcot. The last *jágírdár* was deprived of his estate in 1840 by the East India Company, on a charge of treason. The ruins of several Hindu temples still remain, but all trace of fortification on the hill has disappeared.

Uddhanpur.—Market village in Bardwán District, Bengal; situated on the bank of the Bhágírathí, in lat. 23° 41′ 10″ N., and long. 88° 11′ E. Ferry across the river. Annual fair held on the occasion of the Hindu festival, *Paus Sankránti*.

Udhunálá (*Oodeynullah*).—Village and old stream in the Santál Parganás District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 59′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 53′ 15″ E., 6 miles south of Rájmahál. The remains of entrenched camps, where the army of the Nawáb Mír Kásim was defeated by Major Adams in 1763, may still be seen at this spot. The ruins of a beautiful Mughal bridge over the *nálá* are also visible, but are rapidly being destroyed by the main stream of the Ganges, which now occupies the bed of the old stream.

Udiarpolliem.—*Táluk* and town, Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency.—*See* UDAIYARPALAIYAM.

Udipi.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Area, 787 square miles. Population (1881) 237,432, namely, males 114,520, and females 122,912; occupying 41,642 houses, in 1 town and 260 villages. Hindus number 214,997; Christians,

14,012; Muhammadans, 6159; and 'others,' 2264. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 72 men. Land revenue, £33,163.

Udipi.—Town in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Udipi *táluk*; situated in lat. 13° 20′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 47′ E. Udipi is formed of parts of Shivalli, Badagabetti, Puttúr, and Múdanidambúr villages. Population (1881) 4449, namely, Hindus, 3915; Muhammadans, 360; Christians, 168; and 'others,' 6. Number of houses, 825. Udipi is considered by Hindus to be the most sacred spot in the Kánarese country, and is much frequented by pilgrims from Mysore. There are eight *maths* (Hindu monasteries); and the management of the temple, which is very ancient and largely endowed, is held by the heads of these *maths* in rotation, for two years each. A suburb of Udipi, Kalyánapur, is probably the Kalliena of Cosmas Indicopleustes (545 A.D.).

Udpur Ghelwa.—Village in Khutáhan *tahsíl*, Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 58′ N., long. 82° 33′ 25″ E., 8 miles south-west of Khutáhan town. Population (1881) 2083, chiefly Bráhmans.

Udumalpetai.—*Táluk* and town in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* UDAMALPET.

Ughi.—Frontier valley in Hazára District, Punjab.—*See* AGRORE.

Ugú.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated on level ground, surrounded by orchards, 22 miles from Unao town and 5 from Fatehpur Chaurási. Founded by Rájá Ugarsen, a Panwár Rájput of Kanauj, whose descendants held it till the 15th century, when they were overthrown in a war with Ibráhím Sharki of Jaunpur. The Kurmís then took possession of Ugú, and still hold it. Three temples, vernacular school, and remains of a palace and court-house. Annual fair, and two weekly markets. Population (1881) 4479, namely, Hindus 4294, and Musalmáns 185.

Uja (*Unja*).—Town in Baroda State, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency.—*See* UNJA.

Ujháni.—Town and municipality in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 0′ 25″ N., and long. 79° 2′ 20″ E., 8 miles south-west of Budáun town, on the Etah road. Population (1881) 7185, namely, Hindus, 5094; Muhammadans, 2085; Jains, 2; and Christians, 4. Municipal income (1883–84), £328, of which £269 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 9d. per head. The town has a more flourishing appearance than most of the others in the District, with the principal thoroughfares metalled, and a number of well-built brick buildings, both ancient and modern, although the prevailing structures are mud huts. Considerable trade is carried on in refined sugar, locally manufactured out of the raw material. Indigo

is also largely manufactured. Bi-weekly markets on Tuesdays and Saturdays. Police station, post-office, *parganá* school and municipal school, and *saráí* or native inn. The town contains several handsome mosques, and a mausoleum of Abdullá Khán (second son of Alí Muhammad Khán), who held the *parganá*, and died here from the bite of a snake.

Ujhárí.—Village in Hasanpur *tahsíl*, Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 39′ 30″ N., long. 78° 23′ 55″ E., 7½ miles south-east of Hasanpur town. Population (1881) 3217. Ujhárí contains 5 mosques and 1 temple; together with a tomb of a Muhammadan saint, Sháh Dáúd, west of the village. Weekly market.

Ujjain (*Ujjaiyini*).—Town in the Native State of GWALIOR (the dominions of the Mahárájá Sindhia), Málwá, Central India, and the present terminus of a branch of the Málwá line of the Rájputána-Málwá Railway; situated on the right bank of the river Sipra, in lat. 23° 11′ 10″ N., and long. 75° 51′ 45″ E. Though much decayed, Ujjain is still a populous city, with considerable commerce; its chief trade consists in the export of opium, and the import of European goods (especially cotton fabrics). Population (1881) 32,932, namely, males 16,970, and females 15,962. Hindus number 23,255; Muhammadans, 9013; and 'others,' 664.

Ujjain was in ancient times the famous capital of Málwá, one of the seven sacred cities of the Hindus, and the spot which marked the first meridian of Hindu geographers. It is stated to have been the seat of the viceroyalty of the famous Asoka during the reign of his father at Pátaliputra (*circ.* 263 B.C.), but is best known in history as the capital of Vikramáditya. The kingdom of Málwá with its capital fell into the hands of the Muhammadan kings of Delhi in the time of Alá-ud-dín Khiljí (1295–1317 A.D.); and in 1387, the Musalmán viceroy asserted his independence. The Muhammadan kingdom of Málwá lasted till 1531, when it was absorbed into the kingdom of Gujarát by Bahádur Sháh; and in 1571, the whole of this part of India was conquered by Akbar, and once more annexed to the Empire of Delhi. The neighbourhood of the city was, in 1658, the scene of the decisive battle between Aurangzeb and his brother Dara. In 1792, Ujjain was taken and burnt by Holkar; it subsequently fell into the hands of his rival, Sindhia, whose capital it remained until 1810, when Daulat Ráo Sindhia removed his residence to Gwalior.

Thornton states that the modern city of Ujjain is of oblong outline, 6 miles in circumference, surrounded by a stone wall with round towers. The principal *bázár* is a spacious street, with houses of two storeys, 4 mosques, and many Hindu temples, also a palace of Sindhia. Near the palace is an ancient gateway, said to have been part of King Vikramáditya's fort. At the southern end of the city is

the observatory erected by Jai Singh, Mahárájá of Jaipur, in the time of the Emperor Muhammad Sháh; the remarkable results of the astronomical observations of this learned prince at Ujjain, Delhi, Jaipur, Benares, and Mathurá were formulated in a set of tables noticed by Tod (*Annals of Rájásthán*, vol. ii. p. 329). The modern city of Ujjain is surrounded on all sides by an almost uninterrupted belt of groves and gardens. The ruins of the ancient city are situated about a mile to the northward.

Uk-kan.—Village and river in the Ok-kan revenue circle, Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* OK-KAN.

Ukli.—Town in Bágewádi Sub-division, Bijápur District, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 5218, namely, Hindus, 4376; Muhammadans, 839; and Christians, 3.

Ul.—River of Oudh, rising in lat. 28° 21′ N., and long. 80° 27′ E., in Sháhjahánpur District of the North-Western Provinces; flows south by east, and, after a course of 7 miles, forms the boundary between the Districts of Sháhjahánpur and Kheri, till it enters the latter District in lat. 28° 22′ N., and long. 80° 28′ E. Flowing south-east through Kheri District, it joins the Chauka on its left bank in Sítápur District, in lat. 27° 42′ N., and long. 81° 13′ E. Total length, about 110 miles. The Ul is liable to great floods; cold-weather discharge at Lakhímpur, 30 feet per second. In places the channel is entirely dry, but during the rains the river becomes one-third of a mile broad and 10 feet deep in mid-channel. Not used for navigation, and of little service for irrigation, being below the level of the adjoining country; bridged on the road between Alíganj and Gola, and also on the Lakhímpur and Singahi road.

Ulá.—Town in Nadiyá District, Bengal.—*See* BIRNAGAR.

Ulá Kandí (or *Bhairab Bázár*).—Town in Maimansingh District, Bengal; situated on the Meghná, just at the boundary junction of the three Districts of Dacca, Tipperah, and Maimansingh. The most important commercial mart of the District; large trade in jute and salt; considerable traffic carried on between Ulá Kandí and Náráinganj. The village contains a good school and a post-office. Cattle market.

Ulubáriá.—Sub-division of Howrah District, Bengal. Area, 303 square miles, with 1114 villages and 50,385 houses. Population (1881) 323,737, namely, males 153,876, and females 169,861. Average density of population, 1068 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 3·68; persons per village, 290; houses per square mile, 178·7; persons per house, 6·4. Hindus number 257,117; Muhammadans, 66,581; Christians, .27; Buddhists, 9; and Jains, 3. This Sub-division comprises the four police circles (*thánás*) of Ulubáriá, Ampta, Bághnan, and Shámpur. In 1884 it contained 1 criminal and

2 civil courts; strength of regular police, 80 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 854.

Ulubáriá.—Small town on the banks of the Húglí, in Howrah District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 28′ N., long. 88° 9′ 15″ E.; 15 miles south of Howrah. It contains a Deputy Magistrate and Deputy Collector's court, police station, post-office, and is a toll station on the Midnapur Canal. Ulubáriá is the starting-place of the MIDNAPUR HIGH LEVEL CANAL (*q.v.*). The main road for Purí in Orissa crosses the Húglí at this village by a ferry. Considerable boat traffic is carried on between Calcutta and Ulubáriá; two native ferry steamers ply daily between the two places, and the Midnapur line of steamers from Calcutta call daily. Large weekly cattle market on Saturdays. Staging bungalow.

Ulvi.—Small village in North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency, with a Lingáyat shrine in honour of Siva. A religious fair is held annually, at which nearly 5000 pilgrims assemble, when a temporary municipality is called into existence. Population about 200.

Ulwar (properly spelt *Alwar*).—State and town in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency.—*See* ALWAR.

Umánanda (*'He whose delight is Umá'*—one of the names of Siva). —Small rocky island and temple in the channel of the Brahmaputra, opposite the town of Gauhátí, Kámrúp District, Assam. It is a sacred site of pilgrimage, supposed to have been formed by the god Siva out of the dust with which he had marked his forehead. For the support of the temple dedicated to Siva, 3456 acres of land are held revenue free, and 1957 acres at half assessment. The rock is known to Europeans at Gauhátí as 'Peacock Island.'

Umargarh.—Town in Jalesar *tahsíl*, Etah District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the left bank of the Sengar river, 9 miles south-east of Jalesar town. Population (1881) 4765. The town is the seat of an ancient Jádun family, the present representative of which still resides in the old fort. The fort was originally defended by a deep fosse, but this is now partially filled up, and the buildings are in a dilapidated condition. Umargarh was plundered by the Maráthás under Sindhia, in the time of Thákur Bahádur Singh, who maintained a gallant defence against the hostile forces. Round the walls of the fort are magnificent mango groves. There are two indigo factories, one belonging to the Jádun family, and the other to a European firm. Police station, post-office, and primary school.

Umaria.—Village in Sehora *tahsíl*, Jabalpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2238, namely, Hindus, 2044; Muhammadans, 78; Jains, 3; and non-Hindu aborigines, 113.

Umarkher.—Chief town of a *parganá* of the same name in Pusar *táluk*, Básim District, Berar. Lat. 19° 36° N., long. 77° 45′ E. Popu-

lation (1881) 5959, namely, Hindus, 4695; Muhammadans, 1173; Jains, 85; Christians, 5; and Sikh, 1. An action was fought here in 1819 between the Hatkar chiefs and the Nizám's contingent. The *parganá* of Umarkher was formally ceded to the Peshwá by the Nizám after the battle of Kardla in 1795, though practically the former had held it since 1764. The Peshwá Bájí Ráo halted at Umarkher in 1818, on his flight eastward after the failure of his Poona *coup d'état*. A small but elaborately built temple, of late date, marks the site of the funeral pyre of a Bráhman, now known as Sádhu Mahárāj. Gomúkh Swámi, a religious devotee of much local reputation, had a *math* or temple at Umarkher. During part of the year, it was his custom to travel about, attended by one servant, and to collect large sums (popularly estimated at 2 *lákhs* per annum), which were expended on good works. He has built several temples and wells. People come from long distances to perform vows; and not many years since, 5000 people were being daily fed at the *math*. When the Swámi ate and drank, which was only once a day, he stooped down, and, dispensing with the use of his hands, took with his mouth the ball of meal and water, prepared for him by a Bráhman, from the floor freshly plastered with cow-dung. He died in 1881, on the banks of the Godávari river. A small tomb has been built to his memory in a niche formed in one of the walls of the *math*.

Umarkot.—*Táluk* of the Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area with Cháchra *táluk*, 1105 square miles. Population (1881) of Cháchra *táluk*, 37,046, and of Umarkot *táluk*, 41,635; total, 78,681, namely, males 43,865, and females 34,816; occupying 14,266 houses, in 1 town and 31 villages. Hindus number 21,827; Muhammadans, 38,118; non-Hindu aborigines, 18,074; Sikhs, 486; Jains, 150; Christians, 9; Bráhmo, 1; and 'others,' 16.

Umarkot.—Town in Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Umarkot *táluk*. Lat. 25° 21′ N., long. 69° 46′ E. It lies on the confines of the sandhills forming the Eastern desert; and a canal, known as the Umarkot branch, leading out from the Nára, now reaches the town, tailing off into a large tank. Population (1881) 2828. Umarkot has direct road communication with Haidarábád, *viâ* Tando Alahyar and Mírpur Khás. It is the head-quarters station of the Deputy Commissioner of the District, and of the *múkhtiárkár* of the *táluk*, and has a police station with 24 men. Civil and criminal courts, dispensary, Government schools, telegraph and post offices, *dharmśála*, and cattle pound. The town contains a fort about 500 feet square, the usual garrison of which, when in the possession of the Talpur Mírs, was 400 men. At present the principal Government buildings are situated within this stronghold. Municipal income (1883–84), £478; incidence of taxation, 2s. 6¼d. per head.

The chief employments of the inhabitants are agriculture and cattle-breeding. The Hindus devote their attention also to trade, several of the Umarkot merchants being wealthy men. Local trade in grain, *ghí*, camels, cattle, and tobacco; transit trade in cotton, metals, dyes, dried fruits, *ghí*, grain, oil, piece-goods, wool, and tobacco. The manufactures are confined to the making of camel covers (or *naths*) and coarse cloths.

The town of Umarkot is said to have been founded by one Umar, a chief of the Súmra tribe, but at what date is not known. Its historical importance is due to its position on the main route from Hindustán to Sind. Here, in October 1542, was born Akbar, the son of Humáyún, the exiled Mughal Emperor, then on his flight to Afghánistán. The presumed spot of Akbar's birth is marked by a stone slab, with an inscription. It was through this town that Akbar, when Emperor, marched in 1591 to conquer Sind. In 1813, Umarkot was captured by the Talpur Mírs from the Rájá of Jodhpur, in whose possession it had been for some time; and after their downfall in 1843, it fell into the hands of the British.

Umarpur. — Town in Banka Sub-division, Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 2′ 23″ N., long. 86° 57′ E. Population (1872) 3777; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. One of the chief collecting centres for the rice and Indian corn grown in the south of the District, and exported eastwards by way of Monghyr and Sultánganj. It contains a large tank with a mosque on its bank, ascribed to Prince Sháh Shujá. At Dumráon, about a mile north of Umarpur, are the remains of an old fort of Debí Rájá, within which the last Rájá fell fighting for independence against the Muhammadan invaders.

Umarpur Niwán. — Village in Chail *tahsíl*, Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated 4 miles west of Allahábád city, and adjoining the cantonment. Population (1881) 4971. The village contains the cemetery for European troops.

Umat.—Village in the south of the Jaintia Hills, Assam.—*See* LAKA-DONG.

Umattúr.—Village in Mysore District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 4′ 10″ N., long. 76° 56′ 40″ E. Population (1871) 1579; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. Formerly the capital of a principality under the Vijayanagar kings, subdued by the Hindu Rájá of Mysore in 1613. Now an *inám* or revenue-free village, one of the endowments of the Chamrájnagar temple.

Umballa. — Division, District, *tahsíl*, and city, Punjab. — *See* AMBALA.

Umbargáon.—Customs division of ports in Thána District, Bombay Presidency; consisting of UMBARGAON, GHOLWAD, MAROLI, and KALAI ports. The average annual value of seaborne trade for the five years

ending 1883–84 is returned at £2969 for imports, and £31,121 for exports. In 1883–84, the trade was valued at—imports, £4782; and exports, £34,571.

Umbargáon.—Port in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 20° 11′ 55″ N., and long. 72° 47′ 40″ E., on the west coast, 60 miles due north of Bassein. Population (1881) 3272. The average annual value of seaborne trade for the five years ending 1881–82 is returned at £2044 for imports, and £16,623 for exports. In 1881–82, the trade was valued at—imports, £1228; and exports, £21,882. Post-office, travellers' bungalow, school, and dispensary.

Umeta.—Native State in Rewá Kántha, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; consisting of two groups of villages, of which one group of 5 villages is situated in the British District of Kaira, and the other group of 7 villages in Rewá Kántha; the area of the last group is 21 square miles, yielding a revenue of about £1800. Total area, 36½ square miles. The present chief is named Baria Háthi Singhjí. The total revenue is estimated at £2930; and tribute is paid of £500 to the British, and £255 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Um-iam.—River in the Khási Hills, Assam.—*See* KILING.

Umrapur.—Native State in the Hallár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 2 villages, with 3 separate shareholders or tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £1600; and tribute is paid of £51 to the British Government. Area, 8 square miles. Population (1881) 1804.

Umraundi-Kaliánpur.—Village in Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Kaliánpur *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 26° 3′ N., long. 80° 42′ E., 16 miles from Fatehpur town. Population (1881) 1170, chiefly Kúrmís and Bráhmans. Besides the ordinary Sub-divisional courts and offices, the village contains a police station and post-office.

Umrer.—South-eastern *tahsíl* or revenue Sub-division of Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Area, 1025 square miles, with 1 town and 453 villages; number of houses, 26,439. Population (1881) 134,061, namely, males 67,221, and females 66,840; average density, 131 persons per square mile. Of the total area of the *tahsíl,* 134 square miles are held revenue-free, leaving 891 square miles assessed for Government revenue. Of these, 468 square miles are returned as under cultivation, 193 square miles as cultivable but not under tillage, and 230 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total adult agricultural population, 46,274, or 34·52 per cent. of that of the whole *tahsíl.* Cultivated and cultivable area available for each adult agriculturist, 10 acres. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £19,517, or an average of 1s. 2⅝d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £27,288, or an average of 1s. 9½d.

per cultivated acre. In 1884, the *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; 1 police circle (*thánd*), with 9 outposts (*chaukís*); strength of regular police, 85 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 717.

Umrer.—Town and municipality in Nágpur *tahsíl*, Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 18′ N., long. 79° 21′ E.; 28 miles south-east of Nágpur city. Built on light sandy soil on the north bank of the river Amb, and bordered on the east by beautiful mango groves. Population (1881) 14,247, namely, males 6989, and females 7258. Hindus number 12,874; Muhammadans, 684; Kabírpanthís, 519; Jains, 37; and non-Hindu aborigines, 133. Municipal income (1882–83), £913, of which £788 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1¼d. per head. Umrer was founded towards the close of the 17th century by Munájí Pandit, from Chimúr, to whom the site, then covered with jungle, was granted by Bakht Buland, and whose descendant, the present landholder, still retains the title of *despándyá*. In 1775, Madhují Bhonsla resided at Umrer, and built the fort. It was originally a narrow rectangle, 300 yards long and 80 broad, with walls of massive brickwork, 12 feet thick at the base and 35 high, flanked with bastions. Only two sides now remain. The fort contains several wells, besides the ruins of an old temple made of large pillars roughly hewn, and covered over with huge slabs of stone without mortar. From Madhují's time dates the cloth manufacture, for which the town is famous. The Umrer *dhotís* consist of very fine cotton cloth, with embroidered silk borders from an inch to a foot and a half wide. They are exported to Poona, Násik, Pandharpur in the Deccan, and even to Bombay. A brisk trading town, with a number of bankers and large mercantile firms. Of late years, the town has been much improved. Three and a half miles of good road have been constructed through it, and a handsome school-house and dispensary built. The central market has an open space 70 yards square, well planted with young trees, and metalled throughout. Two large tanks have been excavated, one on each side of the town; and of the numerous wells, many supply excellent water. Prosperous Government school.

Umreth.—Town in Kaira District, Bombay Presidency, and a station on the Godhra branch of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway; situated 14 miles north-east of Anand and 5 miles south by west of Dákor, in lat. 22° 41′ N., and long. 73° 11′ E. Population (1881) 14,643, namely, males 7401, and females 7242. Hindus number 12,971; Muhammadans, 1658; Jains, 11; and Pársís, 3. One of the most populous and wealthy towns in Kaira District. Sub-judge's court and post-office.

Umri.—Native State in Gwalior territory, under the Goona Sub-Agency of Central India. Population (1881) 2740, of whom 2594 were Hindus, dwelling in 24 villages. The income of the State in 1883–84

was £709, of which half is enjoyed by the chief, the remainder being apportioned to different members of the family in *jágír* for their maintenance. During the minority of the present chief the affairs of the State are carried on under the superintendence of the Political Assistant at Goona. Although surrounded on all sides by Gwalior (Sindhia's) territory, the Gwalior *darbár* has never laid claim to interfere in any way with this small State, or to have a voice in the matter of succession. In 1803, the chief assisted General Jean Baptiste in bringing certain Rájput tribes into subjection, and was permitted to remain in undisturbed possession of his estate; he is not therefore considered a feudatory of Sindhia. The present heir to the State, Prithi Singh, will succeed his grandfather, Rájá Mohum Singh, the late chief. He resides generally at Goona, and is being educated at the Rájkumar school of that town. Chief town, Umri. Lat. 24° 45′ N., long. 77° 22′ E.

Umrí. — *Zamindárí* estate in Sakoli *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces, 4 miles west of the great Nawegáon Lake; comprising 7 villages, with an area of 17 square miles, of which 3 square miles are cultivated. Population (1881) 1147, occupying 229 houses. The grant was made on a service tenure to the ancestor of the present chief, who is a Halbá. Lat. (centre) 20° 46′ N., long. 79° 46′ E.

Umrí. — Village in Amroha *tahsíl*, Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 2′ 15″ N., long. 78° 36′ 30″ E., on the Moradábád and Bijnaur road, 13 miles from Moradábád town. Population (1881) 3007. Weekly market.

Umta.—Town in the Kheralu Sub-division of Baroda State, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 5833. School.

Um-thru.—The name by which the Digru river, Assam, is known in its course through the Khási Hills.—*See* DIGRU.

Un.—Chiefship of Kánkrej State, under the Pálanpur Agency, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency.—*See* KANKREJ.

Una and **Delwára.**—Towns in Junágarh State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 49′ N., long. 71° 5′ E. The ancient town of Una was called in Sanskrit Unat Dúrg ('the lofty fortress'); it was situated close to the present town, which was then known under the name of Delwára. Hence Una-Delwára were formerly almost synonymous. In former times Una-Delwára was ruled by Unevál Bráhmans; but on their offering an affront to the bride of Vejal Vájo, the latter stormed the town, and put many of the inhabitants to the sword. As Unat Dúrg had become defiled by the slaying of the Bráhmans, the population moved into the adjacent town of Delwára, which was hereafter called Una. Afterwards, when Una had fallen under the Muhammadan rule, a new town was founded about 3 miles south of Una; and to this town the old name of Delwára was given. Under

the Sultáns of Gujarát, Una and Delwára were of much importance, from their proximity to the island fortress of Div, from which Delwára is about 4 miles and Una 7 miles distant. The population in 1881 of Delwára was 3373, and of Una 5980.

Uná.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Hoshiárpur District, Punjab; comprising the mountain valley enclosed by the Siwálik Hills and the outer Himálayan chain. This valley, known as the Jaswan Dún, is traversed throughout by the Sohán river, and entered by the Sutlej (Satlaj) near its southern extremity. Area, 867 square miles, with 522 towns and villages, 43,468 houses, and 47,170 families. Population (1881) 208,086, namely, males 109,203, and females 98,883. Average density of population, 240 persons per square mile. Hindus number 174,318; Muhammadans, 23,845; Sikhs, 9897; Jains, 25; and Christian, 1. Of the 522 towns and villages, 386 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 93 between five hundred and a thousand; 36 between one and two thousand; 6 between two and five thousand; and 1 between five and ten thousand. The average area under cultivation during the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82 was 266 square miles, or 170,310 acres; the principal crops being—wheat, 66,500 acres; Indian corn, 37,781 acres; gram, 8530 acres; *joár*, 6718 acres; rice, 6003 acres; *moth*, 5603 acres; cotton, 9194 acres; sugar-cane, 5614 acres; tobacco, 956 acres; indigo, 301 acres; and vegetables, 232 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £25,107. The administrative staff consists of 1 *tahsíldár* and 1 *munsif*, with 2 honorary magistrates exercising criminal jurisdiction only. These officers preside over 2 criminal and 3 civil courts; number of *thánás* or police circles, 4; strength of regular police, 81 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 353.

Uná.—Town and municipality in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Uná *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 31° 32′ N., and long. 76° 18′ E., about the centre of the Jaswan Dún, 125 miles from Hoshiárpur town; elevation above sea-level, 1404 feet. Population (1881) 4389, namely, Hindus, 3122; Sikhs, 812; Muhammadans, 435; and Jains, 20. Number of houses, 969. Municipal income (1883–84), £181, or an average of 1s. per head. The town derives its chief importance from the residence of a branch of the Bedi family, descendants of Bába Nának, the founder of the Sikh religion. Under Ranjít Singh, the family, represented by Bedi Bikráma Singh, held large grants of land in the surrounding valley and elsewhere. Bikráma Singh headed a rising at the time of the second Sikh war, in 1848 (*see* HOSHIARPUR DISTRICT), and thus forfeited his estates. His family still reside in the town. Uná is built on the side of a hill near the Sohán river, the *bázár* consisting of one main street of shops chiefly built of masonry; most of the remaining houses are of mud. The public buildings consist of the usual *tahsíli* courts and offices; a police

station, *sarái* or native inn, rest-house for civil officers, and dispensary.

Unao. — British District in the Lucknow Division or Commissionership of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; situated between 26° 8′ and 27° 2′ N. lat., and between 80° 6′ and 81° 5′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Hardoi; on the east by Lucknow; on the south-east by Rái Bareli; and on the south and south-west by Fatehpur and Cawnpur Districts in the North-Western Provinces, the river Ganges marking the boundary line. Area, 1747 square miles; population (1881) 899,069 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at UNAO TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Except where the country falls as it approaches the Ganges, a uniform dead level prevails. Rich and fertile tracts, studded with groves, alternate with stretches of waste land and plains of barren *úsar*, the whole intersected by small streams. Natural objects of interest or beauty are entirely wanting. The richest tracts, where the best and most valuable crops are produced, lie chiefly in the centre of the District, in *parganás* Purwá, Harha, Unao, Jhalotar, and Asíwán. The predominant soils are good loam and clay; water for irrigating purposes is generally procurable from tanks and wells. The inferior tracts are found in the outer *parganás* of Safipur, Bángarmau, Asoha, etc., running generally in a narrow belt round the District from 1 to 6 miles in width, the prevailing soil being inferior loam and sand.

The only navigable river is the Ganges, which forms the western and south-western boundary of Unao. It is not, however, utilized much either as a highway for conveyance of local produce, or for irrigation. There are several minor streams either bordering on or passing through the District; and the water which they contain during a great part of the year is extensively used for irrigation, the flow being equalized by numerous earthen dams. The rules under which these dams are maintained and regulated are carefully recorded in the settlement papers of the different villages. In a dry season, water becomes so valuable that, unless rules were distinctly laid down and agreed to by all, these dams would be a never-ending source of dispute. The principal of these smaller rivers are as follows:—The Sai rises in Hardoi District, enters Unao at Sultánpur in *parganá* Bángarmau, and after skirting the entire northern boundary, leaves the District at Rámpur, and passes into Rái Bareli. It contains water throughout the year, but is fordable everywhere except during, or immediately after, floods. It is bridged at all the main roads. The Kalyáni also rises in Hardoi, enters Unao at Lahramau, and after passing through Fatehpur and Bángarmau *parganás*, falls into the Ganges at Maraunda; easily fordable at all seasons. The Tinái rises in a marsh or *jhíl* at Asíwán, and intersects Asíwán and Pariar *par-*

ganás. It contains water all the year round, but the banks being high and steep, the cost of raising the water to the fields precludes its being much used for irrigation. The Loni is a small stream which takes its rise in a tank in Unao *parganá*, and flows in a south-easterly direction into Rái Bareli. It does not hold water for any length of time, but is noted for the fine crops of rice grown in its bed and along its banks in the autumn. In October, the river may be traced for miles by the brilliant green which marks its course.

A canal, constructed by Nawáb Nasír-ud-dín Haidar, traverses the north-western portion of Bángarmau *parganá*, and joins the river Sai at Kursat. The original idea was to connect the Ganges and the Gúmti; but the levels were so badly taken, and the grant of money so misappropriated, that it was never carried out, and the canal has only been productive of harm. It draws off all the water from the adjacent villages in the rains, thus not merely depriving the land of the water which would otherwise fertilize it, but causing a continual cutting away of the neighbouring fields.

The District contains several large marshes (*jhíls*). The chief are found in *parganás* Jhalotár, Ajgain, Parsandan, Unao, and the northern parts of Harha and Mauránwán. They contain water all the year round, and afford ample facilities for irrigation to the neighbouring villages. In the Samundar Tál in Jhalotár, and in the Jalesar and Bas-aha Tál in Parsandan and Harha, fish abound; and the water-nut (*singhárá*) is extensively grown.

History.—Of the races inhabiting the country previous to the Rájput colonization, very little is known. According to local tradition, Mauránwán, Purwá, and the northern part of Harha were occupied by the Bhars, and the rest of the District by low-caste tribes of Lodhs, Ahírs, Thatheras, etc. These all appear to have been pastoral people, herding their cattle in the forests which then covered the country, and raising a scanty crop of grain in the cleared patches of land about their villages.

The Rájput colonizers may be divided into the descendants of two classes—first, those who, after their defeat by the Muhammadans under the Ghoris in Upper India, fled across the Ganges into the then almost unknown country of Ajodhya (Oudh), rather than remain servants where they had hitherto ruled as masters. The second class are those who, as time went on, entered the service of the Delhi Emperor, and acquired tracts of country either by direct grant or by the sword. Of the first class, the Chauháns, Dikhits, Raikwárs, Janwárs, and Gautamas are the chief, having effected their settlement between 1200 and 1450 A.D. Of the second class, the principal are the Sengars, Gehlots, Gaurs, and Parihárs, whose colonization dates from 1415 to 1700.

The first invasion of Oudh by the Muhammadans occurred about

1030 A.D. under Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, nephew of Mahmud of Ghazní; but the expedition was most disastrous to the invaders. Along the route taken by the army, the graves of Sayyid Sálár's followers are still pointed out in this District, principally at Bári *tháná* and Asíwán; in the latter place, the *ganj* built close to these tombs bears the name of the Martyrs' Market.

The earliest regular Musalmán settlement in Unao dates from the end of the 13th or the beginning of the 14th century. Tradition relates that a saint, Sayyid Alá-ud-dín, coming from Kanauj, where numbers of the conquering Muhammadans had settled after its fall, to take up his residence at Newál, was not permitted to do so by the Rájá of the place, Newál Singh, who turned the Sayyid out of his territory. The saint in his anger cursed him and all his people for their inhospitality, and as a punishment turned the town upside down and destroyed the inhabitants. After this, the Sayyid founded the town of Bángarmau at a short distance from Newál. The shrine built over his grave bears date 1302 A.D. The next Musalmán conquest was that of Safipur, about 1425, and this was succeeded about twenty-five years later by the capture of Unao from the Bisens.

The event is thus related by Mr. C. A. Elliott in his *Chronicles of Unao*, pp. 93–95: 'Sayyid Bahá-ud-dín, son of Sayyid Alá-ud-dín, who was killed at the taking of Safipur, was the conqueror of the Bisens of Unao, and the founder of the Muhammadan family who have large estates in that *parganá*. They are Zaidi Sayyids from Wasia, and relate of themselves that they are descended from one Sayyid Abdul Farah of Wasia, whom political troubles forced to quit his country and to flee into Hindustán. From him are descended the most renowned Musalmán families in Northern India, the Barhah and Bílgrám Sayyids; and in Khairábád, Fatehpur, Haswa, and many other places, branches of the same stem are found. A young scion of this race, by name Bahá-ud-dín, had fallen in the taking of Kanauj by Sháhab-ud-dín Ghori (1193 A.D.); and it was said that he was slain by the hand of a Bisen Rájá of Unao, who, as vassal to the Rájá of Kanauj, had come to do him military service in that battle. Other members of the Sayyid family had taken up their abodes in Kanauj, and it was from here that the Alá-ud-dín above alluded to had proceeded to join the Jaunpur force, in assisting which he met his death. The conquest of Safipur having proved so easy, the spirit of further acquisition was awakened; and Bahá-ud-dín set out, about 1450 A.D., at the head of a party of his relations, with the view at once to avenge their old blood feud with the Bisens, and to annex a valuable estate. They went craftily about their design, and represented themselves as horse-dealers. Their Persian and Kábulí studs were much valued in a country which produces nothing bigger than ponies; and the Rájá was easily induced to buy so large a number

of horses from them that he was unable to pay in ready money, and was obliged to make over to them a portion of the estate, out of the profits of which they might gradually repay themselves. This was what was wanted to enable them to get a footing in the country. They sent for their families, and along with them obtained the assistance of several more of their party, who came under the pretence of escorting the women.

'Their arrival was timed so as to happen at the celebration of a marriage in the Rájá's family; and before their increased numbers could spread abroad any suspicion of their intentions, they obtained the Rájá's permission for their wives to enter the fort in order to visit his wife and congratulate her on the happy event. In each of the covered litters, which were supposed to contain the women, an armed man was concealed, and arms were hidden about the bearers of the litters. The fort was open to all comers, and its defenders were off their guard, and most of them intoxicated, when the Sayyids, throwing off their disguise, fell on the unsuspecting Bisens and slaughtered every man within the fort. Only one son of the Rájá escaped the massacre. He was out hunting when it occurred, and fled to his kin at Mánikpur. The Rájá of that place took up his quarrel, and sent a force to reinstate him, but was defeated at Ráithan and again at Kwelaghára. The Sayyids, however, did not win the victory without great loss on their side, and felt that they could not long afford to continue such a combat.

'At this time the great Báis Rájá, Tilok Chand, was enjoying undisputed supremacy over the whole Rájput community of the south of Oudh. But the defeat he had experienced at the hands of the Malihábád Patháns had probably taught him that these new invaders were dangerous to meddle with. In token of respect and submission, the Sayyids sent a present to him, which after some deliberation he accepted, answering those who wished him to assist his brother Rájputs by the argument that the Sayyids had taken Unao in pursuance of a blood-feud which it was their duty to prosecute; and he swore not to attack them nor to suffer any other Rájput to do so. They were to keep the Unao *parganá* as their own *zamíndárí*, and charcoal was buried in the village of Kwelaghára to mark the boundary. The Delhi King, on hearing of the success of the Sayyids, gave them a *sanad* for the *zamíndárí*, and made them *chaudharís* of the *parganá* on the condition that they should sound the *azán*, or call to prayers, five times a day, that after each prayer they should shoot off ten arrows from the *masjid*, and that they should accompany the *faujdár* or chief Government official whenever he went to fight any rebel in Báiswára.'

During the Sepoy Rebellion of 1857–58, the people of Unao joined

the mutineers, and for a time the District was completely lost to us. In the operations connected with the relief of Lucknow, several severely contested engagements were fought in Unao between General Havelock's little army and the rebels. The head of the Janwár family and owner of large estates in the District, Rájá Jasa Singh, was one of the first leading men to turn against us. He seized and sent to the Náná at Cawnpur the fugitives from Fatehgarh, and his followers were prominent in opposing General Havelock's forces. He was wounded in the hand in one of the battles, from the effects of which he died. One of his sons was afterwards hanged, and the other became a fugitive. The whole family estates were confiscated, and the villages either restored to their original owners, from whom they had been taken by fraud or force, or given to other landholders as a reward for loyal services.

Population.—The population of Unao District, in 1869, upon the area of the District as at present constituted, and allowing for all transfers up to 1881, was 945,955. The last Census in 1881 returned a total population of 899,069, showing a falling off of 46,886, or 4·9 per cent., in twelve years. This decrease is due to the famine of 1878, and to the fever epidemic of 1879, which followed it. The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 1746·7 square miles; number of towns 7, and of villages 1679; houses, 152,008. Population 899,069, namely, males 461,167, and females 437,902; proportion of males, 51·3 per cent. Average density of population, 514·7 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, ·96; persons per town or village, 533; houses per square mile, 87; inmates per house, 5·9. Classified according to sex and age, the population consists of—under 15 years of age, boys 168,299, and girls 149,211; total children, 317,510, or 35·3 per cent. of the District population: 15 years and upwards, males 292,868, and females 288,691; total adults, 581,559, or 64·7 per cent.

Religion.—The great bulk of the people are Hindus by religion. The Census of 1881 returned the Hindus at 830,307, or 92·4 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans number 68,677, or 7·6 per cent.; Christians, 49; and Sikhs, 36. The Bráhmans form the most numerous section of the population, numbering 127,332, or 14·2 per cent. The other higher Hindu castes are Rájputs, 73,304; Bháts, 5961; Gosains, 2318; Baniyás, 16,013; and Káyasths, 10,386. The principal of the lower Hindu castes are the following:—Chamár, 88,391; Ahír, 84,994; Lodh, 81,223; Pásí, 70,490; Káchhí, 35,133; Korí, 22,430; Gadária, 22,200; Nái, 28,840; Telí, 18,924; Barhai, 17,212; Kurmí, 15,940; Dhobí, 13,970; Káhár, 10,570; Kumbhár, 9611; Lohár, 8453; Tamúlí, 8278; Bhurjí, 7038; Málí, 6446; Kalwár,

6098; Dhanuk, 5138; Bhangí, 4159; Sonár, 4002; Mallah, 3887; and Loniá, 3050. The most important sections of the Muhammadans are the Patháns, Shaikhs, and Sayyids, but their numbers are not returned separately in the Census Report. The other classes of Muhammadans are converts from Hindu low castes, and are designated according to the occupations they follow. The most numerous are Dhuniás or cotton-cleaners, who number 8863, and Darzís or tailors. By sect, nearly the whole of the Muhammadan population belong to the Sunní sect; Sunnís being returned at 66,819, against 1858 Shiás.

Urban and Rural Population.—Unao is essentially a rural District, and contains only the following seven towns with a population exceeding five thousand:—UNAO town and civil station, population (1881) 9509; PURWA, 9719; MAURANWAN, 7163; SAFIPUR, 7031; BANGARMAU, 6350; MOHAN, 5858; and KURSAT, 5755. Total urban population 51,385, or 5·7 per cent. of the District population. The only municipalities are Unao, and NAWALGANJ-MAHARAJGANJ, population (1881) 3084. Total municipal income (1883–84), £575, of which £240 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 4½d. per head. A small house-tax for police and conservancy purposes is levied from four minor towns. The rural population of 847,684 are scattered among 1679 villages and minor towns. Of these, 495 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 651 between two hundred and five hundred; 340 between five hundred and a thousand; 143 between one thousand and two thousand; 30 between two thousand and three thousand; and 20 between three thousand and five thousand. As regards occupation, the Census Report returns the male population under the following six classes:—(1) Professional and official class, 6860; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 874; (3) commercial class, including merchants, bankers, traders, carriers, etc., 4776; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 228,021; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 43,296; and (6) indefinite and unspecified, comprising general labourers and male children, 177,340.

Agriculture.—The following descriptions of soil prevail in the District:—*Dumat* (loam), which comprises 59 per cent. of the total area; *matiár* (clay), 18 per cent.; and *bhúr* (sand), 23 per cent. The barren tracts extending through the central *parganás* form in their waste and desolate aspect a marked contrast to the rich tracts among which they are mingled. Nothing grows upon them except the stunted *babúl* (Acacia arabica), and a scanty pasture for cattle, which springs up in the rainy months, but soon withers. The ordinary harvests of the District are the same as those described in the article on PARTABGARH DISTRICT, viz. the *kharíf*, *henwat*, and *rabí*. Sugar-cane is an exceptional crop, and belongs to none of the above three main divisions.

The thin kind of sugar-cane, known as *baraunkha*, is generally grown, the people being under the impression that it yields a better and more abundant supply of saccharine matter than the thicker and apparently finer sorts of cane, such as *barangha* and *matra*. Cutting usually commences early in January, but is not completed and the sugar made until the middle of February. The crop ripens midway between the *henwat* and the *rabí*, but cannot be classed with either. *Sanwán*, or hemp, is a quick-growing crop, sown in May and cut just before the commencement of the rains. Indigo was formerly extensively grown in Harha, Bángarmau, and Safipur *parganás*. During the latter days of native rule, the cultivation died out; but it has recently been again introduced, and a factory for the dye has been established in Bángarmau. Cotton does not appear to succeed well. During the American war, a good deal was grown, but as prices fell, its cultivation declined. The prevailing rule with regard to rotation of crops is—one exhausting crop, such as wheat, followed by two or three light ones. A field of ordinary soil is sown one year with wheat; next year it bears a light *kharíf* crop of *kakun* or *mandwa*, followed by a light *rabí* crop of barley or peas; the year afterwards by a *henwat* crop of *joár*, and the succeeding year by wheat again.

The area under the different crops in 1883–84 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 80,033 acres; rice, 70,514 acres; other food-grains, 490,854 acres; cotton, 29,304 acres; sugar-cane, 7361 acres; indigo, 3782 acres; opium, 3603 acres; fibres, 1736 acres; tobacco, 797 acres; oil-seeds, 332 acres; and vegetables, 4600 acres. Total, 692,916 acres, including 69,320 acres yielding a double crop in the year. Area still available for cultivation or as grazing lands, 305,408 acres.

Irrigation is largely practised from wells, tanks, and small streams, the entire irrigated area being returned at 286,645 acres, or about 50 per cent. of the total cultivated area. The majority of the husbandmen are dependent on the village *mahájans* for seed grain, which they repay in kind at harvest-time. As the grain is borrowed when it is dearest and repaid when it is cheapest, the lender contrives to extract an exorbitant percentage out of the cultivator. The total male adult agricultural population in 1881 was returned at 227,507, namely, landholders, 11,856; estate officers, 1416; cultivators, 173,055; and agricultural labourers, 41,180. Cultivated area per adult agriculturist, 2·56 acres. The population entirely dependent on the soil, however, numbered 643,139, or 71·53 per cent. of the total population of the District. Of the total area of 1746·7 square miles, 21·8 square miles are held revenue-free, leaving 1724·9 square miles assessed for Government revenue. Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £144,597, or an average of 5s. 0¾d. per

cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses, £265,661, or an average of 9s. 1½d. per cultivated acre. As a rule, rents have for many years been paid in money and not in kind. But nowhere is there a trace of any fixed rate, classified either according to quality or to position of the land in the village. The rule has always been for each field to pay the price commensurate with its known productive capabilities and the demand for land in the village. The average price of food-grains per cwt. during the ten years ending 1870 is returned as follows:—Unhusked rice, 4s. 2d.; common rice, husked, 8s.; best rice, husked, 12s. 5d.; wheat, 6s. 3d.; barley, 4s. 6d.; *bájra*, 5s. 2d.; *jodr*, 5s. 4d.; gram, 5s. 6d.; *arhar*, 4s. 4d. Prices are said to be higher in Unao than in any other town of Oudh, although the rates for common food-grains appear to have slightly fallen of late. The average price of common rice in 1882 was 6s. 10d. per cwt., of wheat 5s. 5d. per cwt., and of gram 4s. 11d. per cwt. The high prices are ascribed to the nearness of Unao to the great mart of Cawnpur, and to the Ganges—a trade route by which grain is conveyed to Allahábád and Patná. The food of the people consists of the cheaper sorts of maize, rice, and *kodo* from November to March, and of barley, gram, peas, and pulses during the rest of the year. Famine or distress caused by high prices was felt in Unao in 1769, 1783–85, 1838, 1861, 1865, 1869, 1874, and 1877–78.

Of the 1194 villages which constituted the District before its reconstitution as at present existing in 1869, 266¾ were held in *tálukdárí* tenure, 561½ in *zamíndárí*, 344¾ in *pattidárí*, and 21 in *bháyáchára* tenure. The *tálukdárs* are divided into three classes—old hereditary *tálukdárs*, 5 in number, who own 51 villages; purchasers of estates at auction, 5 in number, holding 156¼ villages; and recent creations by the British Government for loyal services rendered during the Mutiny, 8 in number, owning 59½ villages. What is called the imperfect form of land division prevails. The cultivated land is almost entirely divided according to some standard fixed by the original dividers; this standard is usually a *bighá*, but in some villages an arbitrary standard has been fixed. In Kalha Utaura, for instance, the shares are divided by reference to an assumed total area of 158 *bháyáchára bighás*, as they are called. That is supposed to be the unit, and each man holds a multiple or a fraction of that unit. In most of the villages the homestead, the waste, the water, are held in common by all; the cultivated land is divided off among the members of the community. As a rule, the tenure is exceedingly simple, each village community being separate from the other; the complicated tenures found in the eastern Districts nowhere prevail, except perhaps in the old *parganá* of Ajgain. This contained 30 villages held by a family of Dikhit Thákúrs, originally sprung from the same head, but now divided into

separate communities. Instead, however, of each village being held separately as elsewhere, almost every person in the *parganá* holds a share in some of the neighbouring estates. It is not that the lands of one lie interspersed with those of another, but that the shares are carefully bound up one with another. In most of these villages the cultivated land is alone divided, the waste, water, and townships being held in common by all the shareholders. According to tradition, the intention of the author of the scheme was to bind all his descendants together, and, however much they might quarrel amongst themselves, give them all an interest in joining against outside aggression. As a matter of fact, they unite not only against outsiders, but against any encroachment by one of their own number. No farmer or single member of the brotherhood ever had a chance of usurping the rights of others; and to this day the villages still remain intact in possession of their ancestral owners.

Means of Communication, etc.—The Lucknow and Cawnpur branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway intersects Unao District from east to west for a distance of 25½ miles, with stations at Kusumbhi, Ajgain, and Unao. It crosses the Ganges from Unao into Cawnpur by a substantial railway bridge. The main lines of road are as follows:—(1) The Cawnpur and Lucknow road, passing the towns of Unao and Nawábganj, traversing two of the most fertile *parganás* in the District; length in Unao, 22 miles, metalled throughout. (2) From Unao to Rái Bareli, *viâ* Púrwa and Mauránwán; 26 miles, bridged. (3) From Unao to Bihár and Dálmau in Rái Bareli, *viâ* Achalganj; length, 16 miles, only partially bridged. (4) From Unao to Sandíla, *viâ* Rasúlábád, Miánganj, and Haidarábád; 36 miles, not yet bridged across the Sai, which is impassable in the rains. (5) From Unao to Hardoi, *viâ* Safipur, Bángarmau, and Muradábád; 44 miles; a good road, much used, and bridged throughout. (6) From Nánámau Ghát on the Ganges to Lucknow, *viâ* Bángarmau, Asíwán, and Miánganj; 44 miles in Unao; formerly the high-road to Delhi, but latterly fallen into disuse, and only used for local traffic. Minor roads—Cawnpur to Púrwa, 26 miles; Rasúlábád to Pariar, 15 miles; Miánganj to Safipur, 10 miles; Púrwa to Báni, 15 miles. In addition to these aligned roads, there are also numerous cart-tracks from village to village, which are readily traversable for eight months in the year. Total length of made roads of all classes (1883–84), 462¾ miles. Ferries are maintained across the Ganges. Length of navigable rivers, 80 miles.

Manufactures, Trade, etc.—The manufactures of Unao consist of a little weaving and the making of agricultural implements, but the articles made are only for local use. Indigo manufacture, which had formerly died out, has again been resumed. The commerce of the District is

small, and is chiefly carried on by traders resident at Mauránwán, Púrwa, Moradábád, Bángarmau, and some of the small markets scattered through the District. The principal exports are grain of all kinds, *ghí*, *gúr*, tobacco, and a little indigo and saltpetre. Chief imports—piece-goods, salt, iron, cotton, spices, and other necessaries required for consumption by a rural population.

Administration.—Unao is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, aided by 3 or 4 Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners, 4 *tahsildárs*, and 3 honorary Assistant Commissioners. There are altogether 15 civil and revenue judges and 11 magistrates at work within the District. The total imperial and local revenue of the District in 1883–84 amounted to £179,079, of which £142,272 was derived from the land. The civil expenditure, as represented by the cost of officials and police, amounted in the same year to £13,967. For police purposes, the District is divided into the following 9 police circles (*thánás*):—Unao, Púrwa, Mauránwán, Bára, Ajgain, Achalganj, Newalganj, Safipur, and Bángarmau. The regular police force in 1883 consisted of 441 officers and men, maintained at a cost to Government of £5312; the village police or rural watch numbered 2515, maintained by the landholders or villagers at an estimated cost of £5417; and the town force numbered 57 men, maintained by the municipalities or town committees at a cost of £269.

Education was afforded in 1883–84 by 1 high school, 9 second-class, and 107 third-class schools, attended by 4774 pupils. The above figures only refer to the Government inspected and aided schools, and are exclusive of unaided indigenous village schools. The Census Report of 1881 returned 7273 boys and 50 girls as under instruction, besides 24,713 males and 154 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The range of the thermometer varies from about 75° F. to 103° in the hot weather, and from 46° to 79° in the cold season. The rainfall during the fifteen years ending 1881 averaged 33·86 inches, the lowest rainfall occurring in 1868, with 15·2 inches, and the highest in 1867, with 75·7 inches. The prevailing endemic diseases are malarious fever, dysentery, and ague. Leprosy is also met with. Cholera and small-pox occur every year. The total number of deaths returned in 1883–84 was 27,923, showing a death-rate of 30·24 per thousand, against an average of 36·71 per thousand for the previous five years. Of the deaths in 1883–84, 16,567 were assigned to fevers, 7110 to small-pox, 346 to cholera, and 832 to bowel complaints. Cattle-plague appeared in an epidemic form in 1873. [For further information regarding Unao, see the *Gazetteer of the Province of Oudh*, vol. iii. pp. 510–567 (published by authority, Allahábád, 1877); the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces*

and Oudh for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Oudh Government.]

Unao. — *Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Unao District, Oudh, lying between 26° 17′ and 26° 40′ N. lat., and between 80° 21′ and 80° 44′ E. long.; bounded on the north by Safipur and Mohán *tahsíls*, on the east and south by Púrwa, and on the west by Cawnpur District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 385 square miles, of which 199 square miles are cultivated. Population (1881) 187,891, namely, males 96,263, and females 91,628. Average density, 488 persons per square mile. Hindus number 177,004; Muhammadans, 10,818; and 'others,' 69. Of 288 towns and villages, 170 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 66 between five hundred and a thousand; 51 between one thousand and five thousand; and 1 between five and ten thousand. This *tahsíl* comprises the 4 *parganás* of Unao, Pariar, Sikandarpur, and Harha.

Unao.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh; situated in the east of the District, along the left or north bank of the Ganges. Area, 41,081 acres, of which 20,281 are under cultivation, 9137 cultivable, and 11,663 uncultivable waste. The *parganá* abounds in *mahuá* and mango groves, and grows good crops of wheat, rice, and tobacco. The area held under the different tenures is as follows:—*Tálukdárí*, 8497 acres; sub-settlement, 1989 acres; *zamíndárí*, 13,124 acres; and *pattídárí*, 17,470 acres. Population (1881) 34,684, namely, males 18,141, and females 16,543. Government revenue, £5212. In 1884, the *parganá* contained 1 civil and 6 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 280 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 464.

Unao.—Chief town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Unao District, Oudh; situated 9 miles north-east of Cawnpur, on the road to Lucknow, in lat. 26° 32′ 25″ N., and long. 80° 32′ E. The town is pleasantly situated. Population (1881) 9509, namely, Hindus, 5910; Muhammadans, 3530; Christians, 49; and Sikhs, 20. Municipal income (1883–84), £433, of which £166 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 4d. per head. Fourteen Hindu temples, and 10 mosques. Daily market, the sales at which average £3300 annually. Unao is a prosperous and important place, and a station on the Cawnpur and Lucknow branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The history of the town is thus described in the official *Oudh Gazetteer*:—

'There were formerly extensive jungles on the site of the present town. About 1100 years ago, Godo Singh, a Chauhán Thákúr, an officer in the army of a Bengal Rájá, cleared the jungle and founded a town which he called Sarái Godo. He left it shortly afterwards, and the place passed into the hands of Rájá Ajipál, a prince of the Chandrabansi or Lunar race of the Rájputs reigning at Kanauj." Khánde Singh was made governor. His lieutenant, Unwant Singh, a

Bisen, murdered him, built a fort, and, having acquired independent authority, re-named the place after himself. About 1450 A.D., a great battle was fought here. Rájá Umráwat Singh, son of Rájá Jagdeo Singh, and descendant of Unwant Singh, was a bigoted Hindu, and would not allow the Musalmáns to sound the *azán* or pray in public. Some Sayyids organized an expedition against him, got into his fort by stratagem during a feast, killed him, and took possession of the estate. The present *tálukdár* is descended from their leader. Among his ancestors, Bahá-ud-dín and Sayyid Husain distinguished themselves; they were entrusted with the government by the Delhi sovereigns, and founded several villages, among others Dostinagar and Baida Abbáspur. In the reign of Sháh Jahán, Fateh-ullá, of a Shaikh family, settled here and was made governor. Some fine buildings of his erection still remain. One of his descendants, Maulví Ihsán Alí, a poet of repute, was attached as such to the court of Nawáb Saádat Alí. Gopál Dás was appointed *kánúngo* by Sher Sháh, and his descendant Rájá Nand Kishor was *chaukladár* for some time. A battle was fought here on 29th July 1857 between General Havelock's forces and the mutineers, who were defeated with loss.'

Unchehra (*Ucheyra*, *Uchahra*).—Native State under the Baghelkhand Agency, Central India.—*See* NAGODE.

Unchhali.—Village in North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency; situated about 12 miles north-west of Siddápur, noted for a beautiful cascade known as the Lushington Falls. Above and across a gorge of no great breadth are the falls, the river gliding over the crest of the cliff and down bare sheets of rock to a pool about 400 feet below. From the pool the river winds for about 7 miles through a ravine with forest-clothed slopes, forming a succession of broken rapids and pools. The pools are well stocked with fish.

Unja.—Town in Baroda State, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency, and a station on the Rájputána-Málwá Railway; situated 56 miles north of Ahmadábád and 8 miles south of Sidhpur. Lat. 23° 48′ 10″ N., long. 72° 27′ E. Population (1881) 10,454, namely, males 5267, and females 5187. Unja is probably the original seat in Gujarát of the Kadwa Kunbís, who migrated from Márwár in the time of the Rájput kings. The Kadwa Kunbís now constitute about a third of the total population. Among them marriages take place only once in every ten or twelve years, when a large number of them enter the matrimonial state. All the girls of the caste over forty days old must be married on one or other of certain fixed days; and should no husband be found, a proxy bridegroom is sometimes set up and married to a number of girls, who immediately enter a state of nominal widowhood until an eligible suitor turns up, when the parents give her in *natra* or second marriage. More frequently even the proxy is dispensed with, and little girls are

married to bouquets of flowers, which are treated as actual bridegrooms during the ceremonies and then thrown into a well, leaving the little maids as widows. Court, two resting-houses, post-office, and Gujarátí school. Large annual fair.

Untha Dhurá.—Pass on the Tibetan frontier of Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* ANTA DHURA.

Untri.—Native State in the Jhálawár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 2 separate shareholders or tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £195; and tribute is paid of £49, 6s. to the British Government, and £4, 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Area, 6 square miles. Population (1881) 431.

Upleta.—Port in Gondal State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 44′ N., long. 70° 20′ E.; situated 19 miles north-west of Junágarh. Population (1881) 6268. Upleta is a wealthy town, second only to Dhoráji and Gondal in the Gondal State. Post-office, school, dispensary, *dharmsála*, and Darbar palace.

Upmáka.—Village in Sarvassiddhi *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 25′ N., long. 82° 46′ E. Population (1871) 2051, inhabiting 426 houses. Not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. There is a very ancient temple here, which contains no idol or likeness of any living thing, though the conch and discus of Vishnu are figured on a stone. The yearly marriage festival of the god attracts great numbers of pilgrims in the month of March. Numerous marriages are celebrated here throughout the year.

Upper Godávari.—Formerly a separate British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, which was abolished in 1878–79 by the transfer of its two southern *táluks* to the Madras District of GODAVARI, while the northern portion was amalgamated with the Central Provinces District of CHANDA, of which it now forms the Sironcha Sub-division.

Upper Sind Frontier.—British District, forming the northernmost portion of the Province of Sind, Bombay Presidency; lying between 27° 56′ and 28° 27′ N. lat., and between 68° and 69° 44′ E. long. Area, 2139 square miles. Population (1881) 124,181 souls. Bounded on the north and west by the Deraját Districts of the Punjab, and the territory of the Khán of Khelát; on the south by Shikárpur District; and on the east by the river Indus. The administrative head-quarters are at JACOBABAD.

Physical Aspects.—With the exception of a triangular tract in the north-east which was transferred from the Punjab in 1865, the Frontier District consists of a narrow strip of level plain covered in parts with dense jungle, which, prior to the construction of the Kashmor *bandh* or embankment, was exposed to annual inundations. The

embankment now keeps out the flood water, and cultivation is fast extending. Greatest length from east to west, 114 miles; maximum breadth from north to south, 20 miles. In certain parts of the District, high and extensive sandhills form a feature in the landscape; and numerous mounds on the plains attest the existence of former towns and village. The land itself lies from 170 to 273 feet above sea-level, being highest on its eastern side near the river Indus, whence it slopes downwards to the west.

An interesting feature in the Upper Sind Frontier District is its canal system, which derives its supply from the Indus, and is the chief source of its agricultural productiveness. The following are the principal canals maintained by Government, which form an important source of the District revenue:—(1) The Begári Canal takes off from the Indus in the extreme south-eastern corner of the District. It flows along the south of the District to Khera Garhi in the extreme west; total length, including branches, 148 miles; width at mouth, 57 feet; navigable throughout by boats. The average annual cost of this canal for the three years ending 1880–81 was £6427, while the average annual revenue during the same period amounted to £12,113; the revenue for 1881–82 was £16,199. (2) The Begári is continued by the Sir Canal, which brings in an annual revenue of £1895, realized as a water-rate from lands irrigated by it and lying in Khelát territory. (3) The Núrwa is a branch of the Begári, taking off from that canal 40 miles from its head, and running northwards to Jacobábád, a distance of 19 miles, of which 10 miles are navigable. Annual cost of maintenance, £854; annual revenue, £2427. (4) The Sonwa is another branch of the Begári, which takes off from it 19 miles from its head, and runs northwards for 19 miles through the *tappas* of Mírpur and Thul. Annual cost of maintenance, £594; annual revenue, £2614. (5) The Mírzáwa is another branch of the Begári, 9½ miles in length, watering the *tappas* of Mírpur and Mubárakpur. Annual cost of maintenance, £211; annual revenue, £1375. (6) The Budwa is a short branch of the Núrwa, 4 miles in length. Annual cost of maintenance, £92; annual revenue, £149. (7) The Desert Canal, formerly known as the Maksúdwa, runs 143 miles into the desert west of Kashmor, irrigating from 50,000 to 60,000 acres. Annual cost of maintenance, £1767; annual revenue, £14,188. Besides these canals, there are numerous smaller branches from each of them, which are under the management of the landholders.

The principal forest and other trees met with in the District are the following:—Tamarisk or *jhau* (Tamarix dioica), willow poplar or *bahan* (Populus euphratica), *babúl* (Acacia arabica), wild caper-tree or *karil* (Capparis aphylla), *pilú* (Salvadora eleoides), *kandi* (Prosopis spicigera), *sissu* (Dalbergia Sissoo), *nim* (Melia azadirachta), acacia or

siris (Acacia Lebbek), banian or *bar* (Ficus bengalensis), Indian fig-tree or *pípal* (Ficus religiosa), tamarind or *imli* (Tamarindus indica). Lands are now being taken up for the formation of reserves by the Forest Department. The wild animals comprise—hogs, which are very numerous, gazelles, hog-deer (*parah*), hyænas, wolves, jackals, foxes. Tigers are occasionally seen in the thick jungles on the river banks in the Kashmor *táluk*.

Population.—According to the Census of 1872, the population of the District was returned at 95,554, including the population of Jacobábád cantonment, which then amounted to 5599 persons. The Census of 1881 returned a total of 124,181 persons; occupying 21,923 houses, in 1 town and 142 villages, or an increase of population of 29·91 per cent. in nine years, mainly due to immigration from Balúchistán and the Punjab Districts. Average number of persons per village, 868; persons per house, 5·06; persons per square mile, 58; villages or towns per square mile, 0·07; houses per square mile, 10·3. Classified according to sex, there were—males 70,166, and females 54,015; proportion of males, 56·5 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 28,447, and girls 21,734; total children, 50,181, or 40·4 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 41,719, and females 32,281; total adults, 74,000, or 59·6 per cent.

The religious division showed the following results:—Muhammadans, 109,183, or 87·9 per cent. of the total population; Hindus, 9894, or 7·9 per cent.; Sikhs, 3664; non-Hindu aborigines, 1198; Christians, 230; Pársís, 9; and Jews, 3.

The Muhammadan population consisted of — Sindhís, 61,584; Balúchís, 39,286; Patháns, 2559; Shaikhs, 2144; Sayyids, 1019; and 'others,' 2591. According to sect, the Muhammadans numbered—Sunnís, 107,348; Shiás, 1783; and 'others,' 52.

The Hindus were sub-divided into the following main castes:—Lohanas (merchants, shopkeepers, agriculturists, etc.), 6655; Bráhmans, 318; Rájputs, 43; and 'others,' 2878.

The Christians sub-divided into sects were—Episcopalians, 101; Roman Catholics, 97; Presbyterians, 19; Methodists, 13. According to race—Europeans, 121; Eurasians, 34; Natives, 75.

The Báluchís, who form the predominant class of the Muhammadan population, are divided into the following great clans:—The Jamális, who inhabit the western portion of the District; the Jakránis, who reside in the neighbourhood of Jacobábád, and many of whom enlist in the District police; the Dúmbkis, living near Jacobábád and Kumbri; the Khosas, who are distributed throughout the District; the Búrdis, the Búrdikas, and the Mazáris, who live in the neighbourhood of Kashmor. These, again, are sub-divided into numerous lesser families. The Sindhís

consist principally of the following tribes:—Bhutus, Chachars, Mhars, Pitáfs, Machhís, etc. The Játs, who are sub-divided into Lesháris, Bráhmanis, Waswánis, and Bábars, live in encampments of mat tents, and are engaged in tending and rearing camels. The food of these different tribes consists of unleavened wheaten or *jodr* bread, with milk and butter, and occasionally meat, eggs, and vegetables. They are addicted to the use of *bhang* and tobacco, and drink spirituous liquors. The dress of the men is of cotton, and is made up of a turban, breeches, and a long loose shirt, with a *lungi* or *dopata* thrown across the shoulders, or wound round the waist. The dress of the women is, excepting the turban, much the same as that of the men; the breast portion of the shirt is, however, generally embroidered with either red silk or cotton.

Border Tribes.—The following account of the frontier clans, illustrating their old predatory habits, and the effectual means taken to reclaim them,—measures which have converted thousands of lawless and wild people into industrious cultivators and traders,—is quoted from a Report by the late General Jacob, written in 1854, when he was Commandant and Political Superintendent on the Frontier: 'These tribes are the Mazáris, Búrdis, Khosas, Jamális, Jatois, Dúmbkis, Jakránis, and others. The Mazáris inhabit the country on the right bank of the Indus, between Mithánkot and Búrdika. This tract is chiefly in the Punjab, a small part only falling within the boundary of Sind. The habits of this tribe were wholly, and are still to a great extent, predatory. They continually plundered the river-boats, and made frequent incursions into the Bahawalpur territory on the left bank of the Indus. They were often at war with the Bhúgtis and Maris, and did not hesitate to attack the Dúmbkis and Jakránis at Púlaji, Chatar, etc., from whom they occasionally succeeded in driving off much cattle. The Mazáris are the most expert cattle-stealers in the border country, and have the reputation of being brave warriors. Not many of the tribe now remain in Sind, even in the Kashmor district. Most of them have left that part of the country, and taken up their abode with their chief and brethren in the Punjab, where they are allowed to bear arms, which is not permitted in Sind.

The Búrdis reside chiefly in the district called after them Búrdika, which lies on the western bank of the Indus, between the Mazári country on the north and the Sind Canal on the south. This tribe first came in contact with the British in 1838, when the fortress of Bukkur was handed over to the latter by Mír Rustam of Khairpur. The habits of this tribe were formerly wholly predatory, and up to 1847 the Búrdis made frequent marauding inroads on their neighbours in Kachhi and in the hills, as well as in Sind. In 1839, the Búrdis, in common with the Balúch tribes of Kachhi continually plundered the British convoys moving towards Afghánistán. On this account

the chief, Sher Muhammad, was imprisoned by Mír Rustam of Khairpur (whose subjects the Búrdis were), and sent to Mr. Bell, then Political Agent in Upper Sind. This tribe continued in the practice of murder and robbery, as before, until the year 1842, when, the country being well guarded, they abstained altogether from plunder. On the deposition of Mír Rustam, and the conquest of Sind by the British in 1843, Búrdika came under the rule of Mír Alí Murád; and the Búrdis resumed their predatory habits with more than wonted vigour, till, in 1844, Mír Alí Murád seized the chiefs of the tribe and kept them in close confinement in the Díji fort till December 1844, when they were released, and accompanied the Mír, with a large number of their tribe, in the hill campaign, in conjunction with Sir Charles Napier. After the predatory tribes of Kachhi (Dúmbkis, Jakránis, etc.) had been transported and settled by Sir Charles Napier on the Sind border, they joined the Búrdis and Khosas in carrying on frequent plundering excursions in secret. Their lawless proceedings were generally attributed to the Bhúgtis and other hillmen, till, in 1847, the Sind Horse were again posted on the Frontier, and Major Jacob discovered and broke up the whole confederacy of robbers on the British border, and punished many of the offenders. At this time every one in the country went armed, but Major Jacob applied for and obtained permission to disarm all men not in Government employ, and this rule was rigidly enforced. Mír Alí Murád also gave Major Jacob full power over all his subjects on the border; but the greater part of the Búrdika district was covered with impenetrable jungle, affording great facilities to the practice of robbery, which, in spite of every effort, was carried on by the Búrdis occasionally, in gangs of from six to twenty men, calling themselves Bhúgtis, but being really inhabitants of Sind. In order to lay open this wild country, Major Jacob obtained permission to cut roads through the jungle. This was done, and, together with other measures which were adopted, proved completely successful in calming the country, which thenceforth became quiet, orderly, and peaceable; the people have taken wholly to agricultural and pastoral pursuits, and cultivation has greatly increased. Búrdika became British territory in 1852, when the lands of Mír Rustam, which had been given to Alí Murád at the conquest of Sind, were resumed.

'The Khosas are a very numerous Balúch tribe, not confined to any one locality, but scattered all over the country from Nagar Párkar to Dádar. The men are plunderers, cultivators, soldiers, or shepherds, according to circumstances. There are several villages of this tribe on the Sind border. They have now but few peculiarities to distinguish them from the other tribes of Sind and Kachhi. They are said to have been originally Abyssinians, and some

have derived their name from "Kush," but of this nothing certain, or even probable, can be discovered. The Jatois and Jamális are two Balúch tribes, both numerous and scattered about the country of Upper Sind and Kachhi. They are cultivators and artificers, and, as a rule, not predatory. The Dúmbkis and Jakránis were the most formidable and warlike of all the Balúch tribes, hill or plain. Up to 1845 they resided in the plains of Eastern Kachhi, where they held the lands of Lhari, Wazira, Púlaji, Chatar, etc. After Sir Charles Napier's hill campaign in 1845, that portion of the Dúmbki tribe which had surrendered to him at Traki was placed under a chief, by name Jamál Khán, on lands near Jáni-dero on the Sind Frontier. Daria Khán and Túrk Alí, with the Jakránis, and some men of other clans, were settled at Jáni-dero itself and its neighbourhood. The lands were granted to them free for three years (afterwards altered to a free grant in perpetuity), and it was expected that they would now take to agricultural pursuits.

'But though a Commissioner was appointed to superintend them at Jánidero, and troops posted at Sháhpur in Kachhi, the Dúmbkis, Jakránis, Khosas, Búrdis, etc., made repeated plundering excursions from British Sind into the neighbouring countries, both hill and plain. The Bhúgtis did the same from their side into Sind. Murder and robbery everywhere prevailed. The troops shut up in forts did nothing to protect the people. The country along the border was left uncultivated, the canals were not cleared out for years, and nearly all the peaceable people left the country. The troops were perfectly isolated in their entrenchments, no supplies were drawn from the country folk, but all were fed as if on shipboard, by the commissariat. Even at the distant post of Sháhpur in Kachhi, the troops and camp-followers were supplied with every article of consumption from the public stores, forwarded by the commissariat department, at an enormous cost, from Shikárpur, 60 miles distant. The cavalry horses were fed in like manner. Notwithstanding that the Bhúgtis had been proclaimed outlaws, a price set on the head of every man of the tribe, and all of them ordered to be treated as enemies wherever they were found, they were not subdued, nor, indeed, in any way weakened, by any of the proceedings of the Governor of Sind.

'The removal of the Jakránis and Dúmbkis from Kachhi left the Sind border temptingly open to incursions, and the Bhúgtis failed not to take advantage of the circumstances. At last, becoming more and more bold by impunity, they assembled a force of some 1500 armed men, mostly on foot, and on the 10th of December 1846, marched into Sind, passed through the British outposts, which dared not attack them, to within 15 miles of Shikárpur, and remained twenty-four hours within British territory, secured every head of cattle in the country around, and returned to their hills, some 75 miles distant, with all their booty

in perfect safety. A regiment of cavalry and 200 Native Rifles were sent from Shikárpur to repel the invaders. The cavalry came upon them at Húdú, about 45 miles from Shikárpur. The Bhúgtis halted *en masse*, their unarmed attendants meanwhile diligently continuing to drive on the cattle towards Sori, Kúshtak, and the hills. The British troops, however, were ignorant of the ground, thought the robbers too strong to be attacked, and returned to Shikárpur without attempting anything further. The Bhúgtis ultimately reached the hills with all their plunder, without the loss of a man, save one killed by a distant random shot from the matchlock of a Jakráni. One regiment of the Sind Horse, then at Haidarábád, was now ordered up with all speed to the Frontier, where it arrived on the 9th of January 1847. Major Jacob was appointed to command the Frontier, and since then has held this post.

'On his arrival at Kháṅghar, desolation and terror were found to prevail everywhere in the country; no man could go in safety from place to place, and even on the main line of communication from Shikárpur to Jagan an escort was necessary. Not a man of the Balúch settlers, the Jakránis and Dúmbkis, had as yet attempted any peaceful labour, or even put his hand to an agricultural implement. At Kháṅgar there was no village, no *bázár*, and but four or five wretched huts, containing in all twenty-two persons. The cavalry detachment was found by the Sind Horse, on arrival, *locked* up in the fort, the gate not being even opened at eight o'clock in the morning. They, during the previous four years, knew little or nothing of the country or of the people on the border; the men of the Sind Horse were familiar with both, and this gave them confidence and power. After assuming the command and relieving the outposts, Major Jacob at once ordered all idea of *defensive* operations to be abandoned; every detachment was posted in the open plain, without any protective works whatever; patrols were sent in every direction in which it was thought an enemy might appear, and these parties crossed and met so often that support was almost certain to be at hand if wanted. The parties were sent to distances of 40 miles into and beyond the desert, and along the Frontier line.

'Whenever a party of the Sind Horse came on any of the plunderers, it always fell on them at once, charging any number, however superior, without the slightest hesitation. Against such sudden attacks the robber horsemen never attempted a stand; they always fled at once, frequently sustaining heavy loss in men, and never succeeding in obtaining any plunder. These proceedings, and especially the tracks, daily renewed, of our parties all over the desert, and at all the watering-places near the hills, far beyond the British border, alarmed the robbers, and prevented them ever feeling safe, and they soon

ceased to make attempts on British territory, though still plundering in Kachhi. Meanwhile, Major Jacob had discovered that not only the Búrdis and Mazáris, who were always inveterate marauders, but the Balúch settlers at Jáni-dero, had been all along systematically carrying on plundering excursions on a considerable scale. The existence of these proceedings were at first thought impossible; but having good information of what was going on, Major Jacob caused the place of their predatory rendezvous to be suddenly surrounded by parties of the Sind Horse, just after the return of a body of Jakráni plunderers from a foray, and the robbers were all secured, with their horses, arms, and a large quantity of stolen cattle. Concealment was no longer possible, and Major Jacob now obtained permission to disarm every man in the country not being a Government servant, which was at once done. At the same time, Major Jacob set 500 of the Jakránis to work to clear out the Núrwa Canal (a main-feeder cleared by Government, though then belonging to Mír Alí Murád). This experiment was perfectly successful, and soon after the Balúch settlers took to manual labour in their own fields with spirit, and even pride. From that time they were really conquered, and commenced to be reformed. They are now peaceful cultivators.

Town and Rural Population.—The only town of importance is JACOBABAD; population (1881) of city 7365, and of cantonment 3987. Jacobábád is the only municipality in the District; income (1883–84), £2450; incidence of taxation, 4s. o½d. Of the 143 towns and villages of the District, 23 in 1881 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 33 between two and five hundred; 52 between five hundred and one thousand; 25 between one and two thousand; 5 between two and three thousand; 4 between three and five thousand; and 1 between five and ten thousand.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 divided the male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 1886; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 1045; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 2176; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 23,970; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 6254; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 34,835.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supported (1881) 61,550 persons, or 49·56 per cent. of the population; but only 23,948 were agricultural workers. Of the total area of the District (2139 square miles), 584 square miles were cultivated in 1881, and assessed for revenue; the cultivable area was 710 square miles; and the uncultivable, 845 square miles. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on

land, £26,354; average incidence of assessment, including local rates and cesses, 1s. 4¾d. per cultivated acre. Average area of cultivable and cultivated land per agricultural worker, 34·6 acres. In 1883–84, the area under actual cultivation was 210,201 acres, of which 4062 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 150,608 acres, of which 97,886 acres were under *joár* (Sorghum vulgare); pulses, 5640 acres; garden produce, 241 acres; drugs and narcotics, 37 acres; sugars, 12 acres; oil-seeds, 51,968 acres; dyes, 1488 acres, all under indigo; fibres, 2664 acres, all under cotton; and other products, 1605 acres. The fruits indigenous to the District are the melon, mango, plum, and date. A great variety of other fruits have of late years been introduced into the gardens at Jacobábád, including peaches, oranges, lemons, figs, *lichís*, grapes, loquats, etc. The three crops of the year are known as the *rabí*, *kharíf*, and *peshras*. The first, comprising wheat, barley, mustard, pease, gram, etc., is sown from September to November inclusive, and reaped in April and May. The *kharíf* crop consists chiefly of *joár*, *bájra*, and oil-seeds, which are sown by the end of May or middle of June, and reaped in October and November. The *peshras* crop includes cotton, melons, and gourds.

In 1883–84, the agricultural live stock consisted of—buffaloes, 6965; bullocks, 23,480; cows, 25,500; horses, mares, and foals, 7158; sheep and goats, 38,000; camels, 14,513; donkeys, 3250; and mules, 9: dead stock—ploughs, 22,130; and carts, 6391. The prices of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. were—wheat, 5s. 7¾d.; barley, 3s. 3½d.; best rice, 7s. 2½d.; common rice, 6s.; *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), 3s.; *joár*, 2s. 8¾d.; gram, 3s. 7¼d.; salt, 6s. 3d.; *ghí*, £2, 11s. 1¼d. The daily wages of skilled labour were 2s., and of unskilled workmen, 7½d.

Means of Communication, etc.—There are reported to be upwards of 900 miles of roads of all descriptions in the District, many of which are fairly constructed and well kept up. Supplies and water are procurable at all the principal villages. The chief lines of road are the following:—(1) From Jacobábád to Shikárpur, length within the District, 11 miles; (2) Jacobábád to Díl Murád, 8 miles; (3) Jacobábád to Tower Begári, 11 miles; (4) Jacobábád to Nasírábád, 6 miles; (5) Jacobábád to Rojhan, 12 miles; (6) Jacobábád to Mubarikpur, Mírpur, and Kandkot, 50 miles; (7) Jacobábád to Ghauspur, 44 miles; (8) Jacobábád to Garhi Khairo, 36 miles; (9) Jacobábád to Gori Nari 36 miles, to Sanri 8 miles, to Toj 22 miles, and to Doi 16 miles; (10) Díl Murád to Garhi Hasan, 12 miles; (11) Garhi Hasan to Tangwáni, 14 miles; (12) Tangwáni to Kandkot, 12 miles; (13) Kandkot to Kumbri, 16 miles; (14) Kumbri to Kashmor, 16 miles; (15) Tower Begári to Chausúl, 14 miles; (16) Chausúl to Rato Dero, 8 miles; (17) Nasírábád to Sháhpur, 24 miles; (18) Rojhan to Muhammadábád, 12 miles; (19) Muhammadábád to Khyra Garhi, 12 miles; (20) Khyra Garhi to

Mehar-ke-khu, 16 miles; (21) Mehar-ke-khu to Chausúl, 8 miles; (22) Chausúl to Shikárpur, 20 miles. The new Frontier Military Railway from the Indus to Sibi (the Sind-Pishin Railway) runs across the District from Sukkur, on the right bank of the Indus, *viâ* Jacobábád, to the frontier.

Manufactures.—The manufacture of salt, which was formerly conducted on a large scale, is now prohibited, and local wants are supplied from the Mouch works near Karáchí. The lacquered woodwork of Kashmor, as also the *dabbas* or leathern jars for holding oil and *ghí*, made at the same place, are worthy of mention. Embroidered and plain shoes are made at Mírpur and Ghauspur, to the number of from twenty to twenty-five thousand a year. Woollen carpets, saddle-bags, nose-bags, ropes, grain-bags, etc., are woven by Balúchí and Ját women, to the estimated value of £1500 per annum. Mats, brooms, sieves, baskets, fans, and ropes are similarly made from the leaves of the *pish* (dwarf-palm), to the estimated value of £400 per annum. Cotton cloth of an inferior description is woven, to the estimated value of £1500. Dyeing and calico printing are carried on to a small extent.

Trade and Commerce.—The internal trade and commerce of this District is principally in wheat, the greater part of which is sent to the seaboard. The transit trade from Central Asia into Sind *viâ* the Frontier District is also considerable. This trade had been conducted by means of camels, ponies, and asses, by the following routes:—(1) From Kandahár, Herát, Kábul, and Bokhára—by Quetta (or Shál), Kurnai, and Khelát, and (2) by Quetta and the Bolán Pass; (3) from Persia by Makrán; and (4) from Thal Chotiála by Kurnai. It is expected that the Sind-Pishin Railway will now carry a large portion of this trade. The merchandise brought from these places consists of wool, woollen apparel, *manjit* or madder, fruits, carpets, and horses; of these latter, some are purchased for the use of the cavalry at Jacobábád, and the others generally proceed to Karáchí by the Khelát road. The export trade for 1880–81 was valued at £309,347; imports at £58,938. In 1881–82, the value of exports had fallen to £171,000; imports were £49,541. The decrease of exports in 1881–82 is due to an increased traffic carried by the Sind-Pishin Railway. The chief articles of export to Balúchistán and Afghánistán are—piece-goods, European and Indian, leather, brass and copper, sugar and tea, to the value of about £2300.

Administration.—The administration of the District is entrusted to a Deputy Commissioner, with a Deputy Collector and Assistant Superintendent of Police. At the head-quarters station of each of the 3 *táluks* or Sub-divisions is a *múkhtiárkár*, with *tappadárs* under him in different parts of the District. A new *táluk*, known as the Sháhdadpúr *táluk*,

formed out of part of the Lárkháná Sub-division of Shikárpur District, has recently been transferred to the Upper Sind Frontier District, which brings the entire northern Khelát frontier under the supervision of the Deputy Commissioner of the District. The total imperial revenue in 1881–82 amounted to £54,824, of which £32,011 was derived from the land. The police force consisted of 243 men, of whom 76 were mounted. The military force at present is 1 regiment of Sind Horse and 1 regiment of Balúchís. The permanent outposts held by this force extend along the foot of the Marri (Murree) and Bhúgti hills as far as the Punjab border. Education is still backward, there being in 1883–84 only 21 schools, attended by 866 pupils. The Census of 1881 returned 807 males and 41 females as under instruction, besides 3387 males and 69 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the District is remarkable for its extreme dryness, and for its extraordinary variations of temperature. There are but two seasons, the 'hot' and the 'cold;' the former extending from May to September, and the latter from October to April. From the beginning of November to the end of March, a period of five months, the climate is temperate and enjoyable. During December and January the cold is frequently very great, the thermometer sometimes indicating as low a temperature as 27° F. Ice and frosts prevail in consequence, and the latter are not unfrequent in February, and even into March. The mean monthly temperature of the cold season, as taken from the register kept at Jacobábád from 1864 to 1868, is found to range from 58° to 73° F., the mean maximum being 88° in March, and the mean minimum 49° in December. During the hot season, extending over seven months (from April to October), the nights in April and May are comparatively cool, though the days are hot; but it is in the following months of June, July, and August that the full force of the heat is experienced, the difference in temperature, during both day and night, being then very slight. In September, the nights become somewhat cool, with occasional dews; and by about the middle of October a sensible change in the temperature takes place, amounting sometimes to as much as 10° between two successive nights. The mean monthly temperature of the hot season ranges from 80° to 102°, the mean maximum being 108° in June, and mean minimum 67° in October. A thermometer placed in the sun's rays at noon during May has stood at 134·5° F. The average mean monthly temperature for the four years ending 1881 was—January, 57·4° F.; February, 62·8°; March, 74·6°; April, 82·5°; May, 91·6°; June, 95·5°; July, 94·4°; August, 90·7°; September, 87·7°; October, 78·8°; November, 65·3°; and December, 57·5° F. The average annual mean temperature was 78·2° F. The average

annual rainfall at Jacobábád during the twenty-one years ending 1881 is returned at only 4·33 inches. The prevailing diseases are fever in its various forms, occurring mostly in September, October, November, and December, after the annual inundation; affections of the lungs, stomach, and bowels, in the same months; rheumatism in August and December; and acute eye diseases in September, October, and November. [For further information regarding the Upper Sind Frontier District, see the *Gazetteer of the Province of Sind*, by Mr. A. W. Hughes (London, George Bell & Co., 1876, second edition); also the *Bombay Census Report* of 1881, and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of the Government of Bombay.]

Uppinangadi.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Area, 951 square miles. Population (1881) 110,367, namely, males 56,656, and females 53,711; occupying 20,167 houses in 277 villages. Hindus number 99,010; Muhammadans, 7064; Christians, 2250; and 'others,' 2043. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 13; regular police, 99 men. Land revenue, £14,261.

Uppinangadi.—(Tulu name, *Libbáru*).—Town in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of the Uppinangadi *táluk*. Lat. 12° 50′ 15″ N., long. 75° 17′ 20″ E. Situated on the Netrávati river.

Upráy.—Small village in Dariápur *táluk*, Ellichpur District, Berar, on the bank of the river Púrna, about 18 miles south of Ellichpur town. Lat. 21° N., long. 77° 34′ 30″ E. Noteworthy on account of a celebrated shrine called Sháh Dáwal. Sháh, a Musalmán, and Dáwal, a Mhár, who arrived together from Hindustán some 200 years ago, were buried here in a common tomb, which is resorted to by both Hindus and Musalmáns, who alike worship at it; it is supported by benefactions and thankofferings.

Uprorá.—*Zamíndárí* estate in the northern hills of Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 4743, residing in 60 villages, on an area of 431 square miles, of which 7233 acres lying in the valleys are cultivated, while 60,000 acres are returned as cultivable. Wild elephants are often seen.

Urái (*Orai*).—Southern *tahsíl* of Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of an open plain, well cultivated and fruitful. This *tahsíl* lies along the north bank of the river Betwa, and the soil is mainly fertile black *már*. Area, 295 square miles, of which 185 square miles are cultivated. Population (1881) 72,380, namely, males 37,176, and females 35,204; average density, 245 persons per square mile. Hindus number 66,390; Muhammadans, 5856; Jains, 122; and 'others,' 12. Of 108 villages and towns in the *tahsíl*, 65 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 20 between five hundred and a thousand;

20 between one and three thousand; 2 between three and five thousand; and 1 between five and ten thousand. Total Government land revenue, £17,000, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £19,134. In 1885 the *tahsíl* contained 3 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 5; regular police, 47 men. Village watch.

Urái (*Orai*).—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 59′ 5″ N., and long. 79° 29′ 35″ E., on the Kálpí and Jhánsí road. Population (1881) 7738, namely, Hindus, 5793; Muhammadans, 1933; and Christians, 12. Municipal income (1883–84), £1113, of which £474 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2§d. per head. The civil station adjoins the town, on a high and well-drained site. At the date of annexation, Urái was a poor village of dilapidated huts; but being fixed upon as the head-quarters for the newly-acquired Jaláun territory in 1839, it has grown rapidly and improved greatly of late years. *Bázár*, known as Ternanganj; public garden and nursery for trees; *tahsíli* school. The former village stood on a hillock, round which extends the modern town. Low, poor-looking shops; few signs of prosperity. Remains of a brick fort, with one ruinous tower; handsome Muhammadan tombs. Numerous carved blocks of granite, used as door-steps and posts, occur frequently in the old town. Principal trade, weaving; export of coarse cloth to the Doáb.

Uraiyúr.—The oldest part of TRICHINOPOLI CITY, Madras Presidency.—*See* TRICHINOPOLI CITY.

Uran.—Town in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency; situated in the south-east of Karanja island, 22 miles south by west of Thána town, and about 8 miles south-east of Bombay city, in lat. 18° 52′ 40″ N., and long. 72° 59′ E. Population (1881) 10,149, namely, males 5754, and females 4395. Hindus number 8436; Muhammadans, 1030; Christians, 416; Jains, 171; and Párs'ís, 96. Municipality established in 1866; income in 1881–82, £606; incidence of taxation, 1s. 3d. per head. Uran has a large customs-house and liquor shed at Mora, the port 3 miles to the north; and twenty-two distilleries supply Thána and Kolába Districts and Bombay city with liquor. Post-office, dispensary, school, church, temples, and mosque.

Uran.—Customs division of ports, Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency; consisting of MORA, KARANJA, and SHWA. The average annual value of sea-borne trade for the five years ending 1883–84 is returned at £56,951 for imports, and £587,909 for exports. In 1883–84 the trade was valued at—imports, £65,519; and exports, £701,735.

Uran.—Island in Panwel Sub-division, Thána District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* KARANJA.

Uravakonda.—Town in Gooty (Guti) *táluk*, Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 57′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 19′ E. Population (1881) 6203, namely, Hindus 5302, and Muhammadans 901; occupying 1234 houses. A sub-magistrate's station.

Urcha (or *Nesing*).—Village in Bashahr (Bussahir) State, Punjab; situated in Kunáwár, in lat. 31° 38′ N., and long. 78° 37′ E. (Thornton), near the right bank of the Taglakhar river. Numerous *manes* or Buddhist religious mounds stud the surrounding country, consisting of loose, uncemented stones, piled to a height of 3 or 4 feet, and sometimes 200 feet in length. Thornton says that the tops are covered with pieces of slate, carved with religious maxims in the sacred character. The neighbourhood is bare and uninviting.

Urchha (or *Orchha*).—State and town in Bundelkhand Agency, Central India.—*See* ORCHHA.

U-rit-taung.—Pagoda in the U-rit-taung township, Akyab District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma. Said to have been built about 1590 A.D. by King Min-tha-laung, on his return from an expedition against the Khyens and Mros. Whilst proceeding on his journey, the king had observed what appeared to be a ball of fire on the hill, and was informed by his astrologers that it was the effulgence from the skull of Gautama, when he died in one of his earlier existences as a Bráhman.

U-rit-taung, East.—Small township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma. A low-lying tract intersected with tidal creeks. It contains 22 revenue circles. Population (1881) 39,075; revenue, £16,707.

U-rit-taung, West.—Township in Akyab District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma. The southern portion is intersected with tidal creeks, which unite the Kú-la-dan and Ma-yú rivers; the northern is hilly and forest-clad. The township is divided into 16 revenue circles. Population (1881) 38,956; revenue, £14,783.

Uriyá.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* AURAIYA.

Urlam.—*Zamíndárí táluk* in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 15 square miles. Population (1881) 11,536, namely, males 5776, and females 5760; occupying 2384 houses in 14 villages. Hindus number 11,476; Muhammadans, 56; and 'others,' 4.

Urmar.—Town in Dasúya *tahsíl*, Hoshiárpur District, Punjab. Population (1881) 7120, namely, Muhammadans, 3891; Hindus, 3016; Sikhs, 117; and Jains, 96. Number of houses, 1278. Urmar forms a single municipality with the neighbouring town of Tánda and the suburb of Ayahpur. Municipal income (1883–84), £453, or an average of 10½d. per head of the population (10,295) within municipal limits. Entrepôt for country produce. Contains a shrine of the

Muhammadan saint Sakhi Sarwár, whose annual festival attracts about 1000 persons.

Urun-Islámpur.—Municipal town in Sátára District, Bombay Presidency; situated 48 miles south-south-east of Sátára town, and 3 miles east of Peth, the present (1884) head-quarters of Wálva Sub-division, in lat. 17° 1′ 47″ N., and long. 74° 25′ 1″ E. Population (1881) 8949, namely, Hindus, 7801; Muhammadans, 771; and Christians, 377. The municipality which was established in 1855 had in 1883–84 an income of £153; incidence of taxation, 3¼d. per head. New offices are being built for the Sub-divisional head-quarters, which are to be transferred from Peth. Dispensary and post-office. Weekly market on Saturdays.

Usia.—Town in Zamániah *tahsíl*, Ghazipur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 25′ 42″ N., long. 83° 44′ 58″ E., 9½ miles east of Zamániah town. Population (1881) 5439. A mere agricultural village, only remarkable for its size. Primary school.

Uska.—Town in Bánsi *tahsíl*, Basti District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the right bank of the Kura river. A flourishing and rapidly rising little town, at which the trade with Nepál is centred. Population (1881) 5079; namely, Hindus, 4534; and Muhammadans, 545.

Usúr (*Oosoor* or *Hosúr*).—Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Hosúr (Usúr) *táluk*. Lat. 12° 44′ 10″ N., long. 77° 52′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 5869, namely, Hindus, 5170; Muhammadans, 655; and Christians, 44; occupying 1058 houses. Usúr is the station of the Sub-Collector of the District, with revenue, civil, and criminal courts, and other Government offices. The Remount Depôt, which distributes horses for the whole Madras Army, is 3½ miles from Usúr. The town itself stands 3120 feet above sea-level, and possesses a climate cool and pleasant for nine months of the year. The fort, formerly one of the Báramahál strongholds, contains the official residence and offices of the Sub-Collector.—*See* also HOSUR TOWN and TALUK.

Utakamand (*Ootacamund*, *Ontikalmanda*).—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of the Nílgiri Hills District, Madras. Lat. 11° 24′ N., long. 76° 44′ E. Population (1881) 12,335; namely, males 6435, and females 5900. Hindus numbered 8021; Muhammadans, 1364; Christians, 2934; and 'others,' 16. Of the Christians, 458 were Europeans and 306 Eurasians. Utakamand is the chief sanitarium of the Madras Presidency. It lies 7228 feet above sea-level; annual rainfall, 45·51 inches; mean temperature, 58° F. The variations of temperature average about 18° in the twenty-four hours, and the extremes in the shade are from 38° minimum in January to 76° maximum in May. The nearest railway

station is Mettupalaiyam (corruptly, METTAPOLLIEM), 327½ miles from Madras, on the Madras Railway, and 32¼ miles by road from Utakamand *viâ* the Kunúr new *ghát*, and 24½ miles by the old road. The whole journey from Madras occupies twenty-two hours, by rail and road. Utakamand has gradually become the summer head-quarters of the Government of Madras; but a large portion of the offices of each department remain throughout the year at the Presidency town.

The plateau of Utakamand was discovered in 1819 by two Madras civilians, while in pursuit of a band of tobacco smugglers. In 1821 the Collector of the District built the first house, and a town after a time grew up. The station reposes in an amphitheatre encircled by noble hills, and adorned by an artificial lake nearly a mile and a half long. It should be remembered that the Nílgiris lie in the upheaved southern angle, formed by the junction of the two mountain systems of the Indian Peninsula, namely, the EASTERN and WESTERN GHATS. Their lofty heights give a majesty to the region, culminating in Dodabetta Peak, 8760 feet above the level of the sea. Five other mountains, including the well-known Elk Hill, have elevations exceeding 8000 feet. The lake, with a smooth carriage road round it, forms a fitting gem in the centre of the station, on which the European houses, perched on the adjacent hills, look down. A splendid vegetation, belonging to the temperate zone, but here growing with tropical luxuriance, refreshes the eyes of the traveller from the plains; delicate European plants rising into hardy shrubs, and English flowers forming hedgerows. The outdoor life is a joyous and characteristic feature of the place. Riding, driving, and all manly sports are possible. For Utakamand has a great advantage over Simla and other Himálayan hill stations, in being situated on an extensive plateau, with wide tracts of grass land, and downs suitable for roads in its neighbourhood.

The municipality was established in 1866; and in 1883–84, its income from taxation was £3171; incidence of taxation, 5s. 1½d. per head, a rate not exceeded by any other town in the Presidency. In fact, though taxed as such, Utakamand is not really a town, and the houses are scattered over the hills. The chief resident officials are the Collector of the District, the Deputy Collector, and Sub-Judge. The number of European visitors is greatest from March to June. From November till February, when the climate is at its best, the population consists almost exclusively of permanent residents. The large number of European coffee-planters around Utakamand gives its resident society an unusual stability. The place is well supplied with churches, hotels, schools, hospitals, shops, etc. There is a branch of the Bank of Madras; and a newspaper is published here. The public library (established 1859), the Lawrence Asylum (founded 1858), built by

Government, and some other institutions, have been noticed under NILGIRIS DISTRICT.

The Botanical Gardens (51 acres) were opened during the Governorship of the Marquis of Tweeddale (1842–43). Their object is the improvement of horticulture by the dissemination of information, by the acclimatization of foreign plants, and by the distribution of seeds and plants. Up to 1871 they were under the Superintendent of Cinchona Plantations, but are now under separate management. The Kalhatti Garden (in a warmer and drier climate) and the Barliyár Garden (8 acres, 2600 feet above the sea) are branches. The latter was bought in 1871, to extend the culture of ipecacuanha. One of the Government Cinchona plantations (the Doddabetta) is at Utakamand. The Hobart Park contains cricket and other recreation grounds. There is a good club, and a pack of fox-hounds is kept up. The Government telegraph office at Utakamand has been for some years under the charge of a lady. In 1881, the District jail at Utakamand had a daily average of 55·32 prisoners, and the European prison, 23·71.

Utál (or *Bijápur*).—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Bargarh *tahsíl*, Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 38 miles south-south-east of Sambalpur town. Population (1881) 14,722, residing in 54 villages, on an area of 80 square miles. Chief products—rice, pulses, sugar-cane, cotton, and oil-seeds. Bijápur, the chief village, with a population (1881) of 1388, has a fine tank, and a good school, attended by nearly a hundred pupils. Originally a Gond chiefship, Utál was conferred about 1820 by Rájá Maháráj Sahí of Sambalpur, with the consent of the British Government, on Gopí Kulta, whose descendant still holds it. The present *zamíndár*, a Kulta by caste, is an honorary magistrate, and holds his court at Bijápur. Estimated revenue, £165, of which £35 is paid as tribute or quit-rent.

Utan.—Port in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the coast, 17 miles north-west of Thána town; lat. 19° 18′ N., long. 72° 49′ E., 5 miles north-west of Borivli station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. Portuguese church and three schools. The average annual value of sea-borne trade at this port for the five years ending 1881–82 was returned at £4500 for imports, and £4042 for exports. In 1881–82 the trade was valued at — imports £3559, and exports £4067.

Utarpárá.—Village in Húglí District, Bengal.—*See* UTTARPARA.

Utch.—Ruined town in Baháwalpur State, Punjab.—*See* UCHH.

Utmán Bulak. — Easternmost of the three *tahsíls* of Pesháwar District, Punjab, which lie east of the Swát and Kábul rivers. Area, 465 square miles, with 97 villages, 17,683 houses, and 22,955 families. Population (1881) 107,304, namely, males 56,625, and females 50,679. Average density of population, 231 persons per square

mile. Muhammadans number 103,720; Hindus, 3507; Sikhs, 75; and Christians, 2. Of the 97 villages, 43 contain less than five hundred inhabitants, 14 between five hundred and a thousand; 36 between one and three thousand; and 4 between three and five thousand. The average area under crops for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82 was 225 square miles, or 144,275 acres; the principal crops being—wheat, 53,677 acres; *moth*, 26,944 acres; barley, 23,841 acres; *joár*, 10,903 acres; Indian corn, 10,011 acres; *bájra*, 1413 acres; sugar-cane, 2090 acres; tobacco, 1744 acres; and cotton, 1070 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £10,265. The only local administrative officer is a *tahsíldár*, who presides over 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 37 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukidárs*), 199.

Ut-po.—Township and town in Henzada District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma.—*See* OT-PO.

Utraula.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Gonda District, Oudh, lying between 26° 53′ and 27° 25′ N. lat., and between 82° 8′ and 82° 38′ E. long. Area, 1448 square miles, of which 947 square miles are under cultivation. Population (1881) 556,729, namely, males 285,203, and females 271,526. Average density, 384 persons per square mile. Hindus number 456,803; Muhammadans, 99,874; and 'others,' 52. Of 1472 towns and villages, 1102 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 322 between five hundred and a thousand; 45 between one and three thousand; 1 between three and five thousand; 1 between five and ten thousand; and 1 between ten and fifteen thousand. This *tahsíl* comprises the 7 *parganás* of Utraula, Sadullánagar, Búrhapárá, Babhnipur, Mánikapur, Balrámpur, and Túlsipur. Revenue, £75,872. In 1885 the *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 127 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukidárs*), 1347.

Utraula.—*Parganá* of Gonda District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by the Rápti river; on the east by Basti District of the North-Western Provinces, from which it is separated by the Rápti and Suwáwan rivers; on the south by the Kuwána river; and on the west by Balrámpur *parganá*. The land is high along the banks of the Rápti, but a few hundred yards to the south it falls into a low clayey hollow. The water which overflows in the rains drains off into this hollow, forming fine rice-fields in ordinary years, or a lake some feet deep when the rainfall is excessive. South of this, the land again rises a few feet, and produces all kinds of crops, particularly winter rice. The Suwáwan runs through the centre of the *parganá*; and the tract between that river and the Kuwána on the southern border forms the commencement of what is known as the *uparhár*, or elevated table-land which occupies the centre of Gonda District. Except along the edge

of the rivers, which are fringed with a jungle now rapidly disappearing, the whole of this tract is under high cultivation, and the soil is the finest loam. Area, 127,898 acres, of which 90,379 acres are assessed and under cultivation. *Rabi* or spring crops occupy 44,440 acres, the autumn and winter crops (*kharif* and *henwát*) 60,549; one-fourth of the cultivated area yields a double harvest. Principal crops—winter rice of good quality, wheat, gram, barley, pulses. At the time of the re-survey of the Province, the Government assessment was fixed at £9835 in 1872–73, rising progressively to £11,574 in 1882–83.

Population (1881) 90,836, namely, males 46,653, and females 44,183. Hindus number 62,819, and Muhammadans 28,017. The most numerous of the Hindu castes belong to the agricultural classes—Ahírs (9609), Kurmís (9275), and Korís (8012). The Muhammadans are nearly all Patháns or converts from Hindu low castes. Three roads intersect the *parganá*. The chief market villages are Utraula, Chamrupur, and Bánk, the latter village containing a small sugar factory. Considerable quantities of rice and oil-seeds are exported to Nawábganj, and exchanged for coarse cloth, salt, and silver. *Kankar* or nodular limestone is quarried along the banks of the Suwáwan.

The early history of this important *parganá* is an absolute blank; although a few remains of ancient forts attest an extinct civilisation, and the village divisions and most of the local names are certainly older than the Muhammadan conquest. The founder of the existing family of Rájás was Alí Khán, a Pathán chief, who first appears as accompanying Humáyún on his expedition to Gujarát, where he incurred the displeasure of his sovereign by conniving at the escape of a Bíkaner Rájá from his beleaguered fort. Being threatened with death, he openly cast off his allegiance, and joined the old Afghán party, which, under Sher Sháh, for a time drove the house of Timúr out of India. For some years after the expulsion of Humáyún, he headed a band of predatory horse, and at length obtained by conquest the territory of Nagar in Basti, having defeated the chieftain, a Gautama Rájput. After a ten years' usurpation, he himself was expelled by a rising of the Hindus, led by a son of the late chief. He next attacked Utraula, a then semi-independent principality under a Rájput chief. The town, with its large fortress and outlying defences, proved too strong to be taken by assault; and Alí Khán formed a permanent camp about two miles from Utraula, where he remained two years, plundering the surrounding country, and blockading the Hindu Rájá in the fort. At length the beleaguered Rájput was defeated in open battle, and Alí Khán succeeded in obtaining possession of the estate.

Upon the return of the Mughal dynasty to power, the old Pathán freebooter held aloof, and absolutely refused to acknowledge allegiance. In the end, the son of Alí Khán made his submission to Akbar,

and won the estate for himself by leading an army against his own father. He sent his parent's head to Delhi as a trophy, and erected a handsome tomb over the rest of his corpse. He was succeeded after twenty years by his son Dáúd Khán. During the next reign, the territories of Utraula were added to by the conquest of the forest of Burhapára from the Kalháns Rájás of Babhnipair. The house of Utraula reached the zenith of its power during the reign of Sálim Khán, who succeeded to the estate in 1659, and ruled for forty-seven years. The close of his life was embittered by domestic dissensions; and being put in peril of his life, he was induced to divide Utraula into five portions, one for himself, and one for each of his four sons. Burhapára, as the separate heritage of the elder branch of the family, was left out of the division. Of the four sons of Sálim Khán, namely, Fateh Khán, Pahár Khán, Rahmat Khán, and Mubárak Khán, only Pahár Khán and Rahmat Khán left heirs. The shares of the other brothers, together with the villages retained for himself by the old Rájá, reverted to the head of the family, in whose hands they remained till British annexation.

Pahár Khán's son, Púrdíl Khán, died leaving an infant son, Tarbiat Khán; and during his minority affairs were conducted by his elder cousins, Mahábat and afterwards Diláwar Khán. The latter allied himself with Datt Singh, the Rájá of Gonda, in his war with the Rájá of Bánsi, and materially contributed to his success. After several battles, the Bánsi Rájá was completely defeated, and acknowledged the Rápti and Suwáwan rivers as the boundary between his territories and Utraula. Tarbiat Khán was succeeded by his son Sadullá Khán, a man of some learning, but of weak character and quite unfit for his position. His unfortunate subjects were ground down by the exactions of the Lucknow officials; and during his rule in 1783, the *parganá* was visited by the most severe famine on record. Barley sold at the rate of 3 lbs. for the rupee, and even well-to-do people are reported to have subsisted on the seeds of grasses and bamboos. From deaths and emigration, the *parganá* was almost entirely thrown out of cultivation. Sadullá Khán's son, Imám Baksh Khán, died without issue three months after his accession, and a cousin of Sadullá Khán was placed upon the throne. He proved incompetent; and in his lifetime the settlement for the Government revenue was made with the village head-men. From 1804 down to the British annexation of the Province, the history of Utraula is little else than a record of internecine warfare between various claimants to the estate. On the outbreak of the Mutiny, Riásat Alí Khán engaged for the *parganá* with the rebel Begam. Soon after the restoration of British authority he died, and was succeeded by a posthumous son, the present Rájá Mumtáz Alí Khán, during whose minority the estate has been under the management

of the Court of Wards. At the time of annexation, Utraula included Sadullánagar and Burhapára, which now form distinct *parganás*.

Utraula.—Town and municipality in Gonda District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Utraula *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated 3 miles south of the river Rápti, in lat. 27° 19′ N., and long. 82° 27′ 25″ E. Population (1881) 5825, namely, Hindus 3316, and Muhammadans 2509. Municipal income (1883–84), £278; average incidence of taxation, 8½d. per head. In the time of the original Rájput founder, the town consisted of a large brick fort, surrounded by a moat, the remains of which are still traceable, and enclosed by a circle of outlying forts. The first act of the Pathán conqueror, Alí Khán, was to dig a large oblong tank to the west of the town, on the edge of which stand the tombs of himself and some of his descendants. The town lands are covered with magnificent groves of mango-trees, and are divided into a number of small plots among many proprietors. School, police station, and charitable dispensary.

Uttal (or *Besí*).—Estate in the Central Provinces.—*See* UTAL.

Uttamapálaiyam.—Town in Periakulam *táluk*, Madura District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 48′ 30″ N., long. 77° 22′ 20″ E.; situated about 5 miles south of Chinnamanúr. Population (1881) 7475, namely, Hindus, 4986; Muhammadans, 1801; and Christians, 688; occupying 1078 houses. Formerly head-quarters of one of the ancient *pálaiyams* or chiefships of Madura, now within the jurisdiction of the *tahsíldár* of Chinnamanúr.

Uttamapuram.—Town in Periakulam *táluk*, Madura District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 7152, namely, Hindus, 5029; Muhammadans, 1641; and Christians, 482; occupying 645 houses.

Uttankarai.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Salem District, Madras Presidency; situated between 11° 46′ and 12° 24′ N. lat., and between 78° 15′ and 78° 46′ E. long. Area, 909 square miles. Population (1881) 109,456, namely, males 53,645, and females 55,811; occupying 21,038 houses in 436 villages. Hindus number 105,978; Muhammadans, 3012; and Christians, 466. The *táluk* lies in a basin surrounded on the south, east, and partially on the west by hill ranges; on the north it merges in the Tirupatúr valley. Most of the soil is red sandy. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 13; and regular police, 103 men. Land revenue, £11,051.

Uttankarai (*'spring-bank'*).—Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Uttankarai *táluk*; situated about 24 miles south of Jollárpet junction station on the South-west line of the Madras Railway. Population (1881) 1190, namely, Hindus, 950; Muhammadans, 235; and Christians, 5. Number of houses, 209. Post-office.

Uttarpárá. — Large and thriving municipal town, immediately north of Báli, situated on the Húglí river, Húglí District, Bengal. Population (1881) 5307, namely, Hindus 5165, and Muhammadans 142. Municipal income (1883–84), £638, of which £584 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 2½d. per head. Uttarpárá is the family residence of the powerful and enlightened *zamíndár* Jai Krishna Mukharjí. It contains a Government school, attended in 1883–84 by 521 boys; also one of the best girls' schools in the District, with 50 girls on the roll. Uttarpárá is famous for its public library collected by the munificence of Jai Krishna Mukharji, and made over by him to trustees for the use of the inhabitants. This institution is especially rich in works on local topography, and books published in India. It consists in part of the library slowly amassed by the *Hurkaru* newspaper in Calcutta during the first half of the century. The building, in the pillared Italian style, stands on the river bank, and is one of the most imposing edifices on the Húglí either above or below Calcutta. Dispensary.

Uttiranmerúr (*Ootramalore*). — Town in Madhurántakam *táluk*, Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 36′ 55″ N., long. 79° 48′ E. Situated about 16 miles south-west of Chengalpat. Population (1881) 7305, namely, Hindus, 6893; Christians, 307; and Muhammadans, 105; inhabiting 1036 houses. Under Hindu and Muhammadan rule, Uttiranmerúr seems to have been an important place. During the last century it was occupied by French and English troops at various times. Station of a sub-magistrate. It contains five Siva and two Vaishnav temples, all in ruins. The architecture of the Siva temples is curious and imposing. Telugu Roman Catholics are numerous in the neighbourhood.

Uttúr (or *Otúr*).—Town in Poona District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 19° 17′ N., and long. 74° 3′ 30″ E., about 50 miles north-north-west of Poona city. Population (1881) 5180. Towards the close of the Maráthá rule, the tract of country round Uttúr was much desolated by inroads of Khándesh Bhíls, for security against whom a high fort was built at Uttúr. In the neighbourhood are two temples, the one dedicated to *Sádhu* Keshav Chaitanya, the *guru* or spiritual preceptor of the celebrated *Sádhu* Tukárám; and the other a shrine of the god Mahádeo, in whose honour an annual fair, attended by about 2000 persons, is held in August or September.

Utukúr.—Town in Pullampet *táluk*, Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency.—*See* VUTUKUR.

V.

Vada.—Sub-division and town of Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WADA.

Vadagenhalli.—Municipal town in Bangalore District, Mysore State, Southern India. Lat. 13° 18′ N., long. 77° 52′ E. Population (1881) 3422. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £60. A centre of trade, chiefly in the hands of the Lingáyats, consisting of the export and import of cotton; also a large local trade in potatoes. Weekly fair on Fridays.

Vadákara (usually known as *Badágara*).—Town in Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* BADAGARA.

Vadakattalai.—Town in Tiruturaipundi *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5353, namely, Hindus, 5275; Muhammadans, 15; and 'others,' 63; occupying 1042 houses.

Vadaku Valiyúr.—Town in Nánguneri *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated about 8 miles south of Nánguneri. Lat. 8° 23′ N., long. 77° 39′ E. Population (1881) 5459, namely, Hindus, 5223; Christians, 187; and Muhammadans, 49; occupying 1064 houses. It is the largest village in the *táluk*, with a fine tank well supplied from mountain sources. Police station and place of pilgrimage.

Vadaku Víravanallúr.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency.—*See* VIRAVANALLUR.

Vadál.—Petty State of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WADAL.

Vadáli.—Petty State of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WADALI.

Vadapáthi Melpathi.—Town in Shujali *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5190, namely, Hindus, 4818; Muhammadans, 216; and Christians, 156.

Vádásinor.—State and town in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency.—*See* BALASINOR.

Vaigai.—(*Vygai*, *Vygay*, etc.).—River in Madura District, Madras Presidency, rising in the spurs of the Western Ghâts. Its two main arms, the Vaigai proper and the Suruli (Suruliyár), join in lat. 10° 8′ N., and long. 77° 50′ E., and the united stream flows south and east into Palk's Strait at Attankarai when its volume is sufficient. But almost the whole of the water is drawn off for irrigation. The towns of Madura and Rámnád are on the banks of the Vaigai. There are no bridges over the river, except the South Indian Railway bridge near Madura. A road bridge is much wanted at the same place.

Vaikom.—*Táluk* or Sub-division, Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 88 square miles.[1] Population (1875) 72,151; (1881) 76,414, namely, males 38,448, and females 37,966; occupying 17,567

houses in 67 *karas* or villages. Density of population, 868·3 persons per square mile. Hindus number 62,021; Christians, 11,270; and Muhammadans, 3123. Of the Christians, 11,258 are Syrians, 11 Roman Catholics, and 1 Protestant.

Vaikom.—Town in Travancore State, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Vaikom *táluk*. Population (1881) 13,053, occupying 2590 houses.

Vairág.—Town in Sholápur District, Bombay; situated in lat. 18° 3′ 42″ N., and long. 75° 50′ 45″ E., on the road connecting Sholápur town and Bársi, 16 miles south-east of the latter place. Population (1881) 5467. An important trade centre. Post-office. Weekly market on Wednesday.

Vairowál.—Town and municipality in Amritsar *tahsíl*, Amritsar (Umritsur) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 56′ N., long. 74° 40′ E., on the right bank of the Beas (Biás), 26 miles south-east of Amritsar town, and opposite Kapúrthala territory. Population (1881) 5409, namely, Muhammadans, 3494; Hindus, 1454; and Sikhs, 461. Number of houses, 963. Municipal income (1883–84), £196, or an average taxation of 8½d. per head. A place of no historical or commercial importance. Small trade in timber, which is brought down by the Beas from the hills. Police station, school, post-office, and ferry.

Vála.—Native State in the Gohelwar *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WALA.

Válájábádu.—Town and cantonment in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency.—*See* WALAJABAD.

Valangimán.—Town in Combaconum *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 53′ N., long. 79° 25′ E. Population (1881) 7285, namely, Hindus, 6873; Muhammadans, 257; Christians, 138; and others, 17; occupying 1230 houses.

Valárpattanam.—River and town in Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* BELIAPATAM.

Valavanúr (*Villenore*).—Prosperous agricultural village in Villupuram *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 55 N., long. 79° 48′ E. Situated about 5 miles south-west of Pondicherri. Population (1881) 7231, namely, Hindus, 7100; Muhammadans, 119; and Christians, 12; occupying 1059 houses.

Valdavúr (or *Valudavúr*).—Village in Villupuram *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 11° 58′ 50″ N., and long. 79° 44′ 30″ E., 9 miles north-west of Pondicherri. Population (1881) 1817, namely, Hindus 1516, and Muhammadans 301; occupying 229 houses. Valdavúr was fortified by the French, and formed one of the supports of their capital, Pondicherri. Coote took it in 1760, when commencing the siege of Pondicherri. Valdavúr has given its name to one of the main redoubts of the Pondicherri fortifications; it was a

land custom station on the French frontier till 30th June 1882, when it was abolished.

Valiyúr.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency.—*See* VADAKU VALIYUR.

Vallam Vadákusetti.—Town in Tanjore *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency, and the residence of the Collector; situated in lat. 10° 43′ 10″ N., and long. 79° 6′ 10″ E., 7 miles from Tanjore city. Population (1881) 7168, namely, Hindus, 5505; Christians, 958; and Muhammadans, 705; occupying 1058 houses. Vallam was captured by the British under Joseph Smith in 1771. The quartz crystals (pebbles) found here are made into spectacles, of which the natives think highly.

Vallemgiman.—Town in Tanjore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* VALANGIMAN.

Vallúr.—Town in Bezwára *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency, and capital of Vallúr *zamíndárí*; situated on the Kistna river about 15 miles below Bezwára. Population (1881) 4070, namely, Hindus, 3775; Muhammadans, 289; and Christians, 6; occupying 812 houses. The *peshkash* or fixed revenue of the *zamíndárí* is £2049.

Valsád.—Port and municipality in Surat District, Bombay Presidency. —*See* BULSAR.

Valteru.—Suburb of Vizagapatam town in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency.—*See* WALTAIR.

Valuvanád.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Malabar District, Madras Presidency. Area, 963 square miles. Population (1881) 308,102, namely, males 153,236, and females 154,866; occupying 52,644 houses in 64 villages. Hindus number 225,075; Muhammadans, 82,885; and Christians, 142. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 10; regular police, 107 men. Land revenue, £24,304.

Vamsadhárá ('*Bamboo Stream*,' also called *Bongsadhárá*).—River rising in the Lonjigar *zamíndárí* of Karond (Káláhandi), Central Provinces, in lat. 19° 55′ N., and long. 83° 32′ E.; and flowing south-south-east into Vizagapatam and Ganjám Districts. It traverses the eastern portion of the Agency tract of Vizagapatam District, and enters Ganjám District at Battili in the Kimedi country. Thence it follows a south-easterly course, until it falls into the Bay of Bengal at Kalingapatam. Total length, about 170 miles, for nearly half of which it is navigable by country boats. Near its mouth, the river is three-quarters of a mile broad. It is proposed to bridge it at Bhairi on the Madras-Ganjám trunk road. The Vamsadhárá irrigates a large tract of Government land.

Vanarási.—Village in Kolár District, Mysore State, Southern India; situated in lat. 13° 14′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 11′ 31″ E., 7 miles north of

Kolár town. Population (1871) 306; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. Scene of an annual festival, held for nine days from the 6th April, in honour of the god Iralappa. The number of people who assemble is estimated at 25,000, and the number of cattle brought for sale at 60,000. Scarcity of water on these occasions has been known to give rise to epidemic disease.

Vanathali. — Town in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. — *See* WANTHALI.

Vanbhachran. — Town in Bannu District, Punjab. — *See* WANBHACHRAN.

Vandavasu.—*Táluk* and town in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* WANDIWASH.

Vániyambádi. — Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 12° 41′ 20″ N., and long. 78° 39′ 15″ E., on the river Pálár, 9 miles north of Jollárpet junction on the South-west line of the Madras Railway. A sub-magistrate's station. Population (1881) 15,426, namely, males 6778, and females 8648; occupying 2871 houses. Hindus number 8419; Muhammadans, 6990; and Christians, 17. Considerable trade is carried on by Muśalmáns (Labbays), who form nearly one-third of the population. During the Mutiny of 1857, these Musalmáns threatened to give trouble, but the disaffection was speedily suppressed. The Madras Railway has done much for Vániyambádi; the annual gross receipts at the Vániyambádi station amount to £11,000. Haidar Alí captured Vániyambádi in 1767, but retired before Colonel Smith in the same year.

Vanmálá.—Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Area, 10½ square miles; 11 villages. Estimated revenue £500, of which £13, os. 6d. is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief holds the title of *Thákur*.

Varada (lit. '*boon-giving*').—River of Southern India, tributary to the Tungabhadra. Rises in lat. 14° 6′ N., and long. 75° 7′ E., at Varadámulá near the town of Ságar in Shimoga District, Mysore State; and after flowing north through Shimoga District, passes into the Bombay District of Dhárwár, and then, turning towards the east, joins the Tungabhadra at the village of Gulnatha below Havanúr. While in Shimoga District, it is crossed by one small anicut or dam, and the revenue from irrigation is about £15. According to Puranic legend, the name originated from the Bhagirathí water poured by Vishnu over the head of Siva, in order to quench the flame of austerities which the latter god was practising as atonement for an atrocious crime.

Varáhanadi (or *Panderu*).—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. After a south-easterly course of 45 miles from its source

in the Eastern Ghâts, it enters the sea with the Sháradanadi at Wattada. A valuable irrigation stream, having 8 anicuts in its course.

Váráhi.—Native State in the Pálanpur Agency, Bombay Presidency. —*See* WARAHI.

Vaso.—Town in Baroda State, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WASO.

Vastára (properly *vasu-dara*, or 'land bestowed as an endowment'). —Village in Kadúr District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 13° 14′ N., and long. 75° 47′ E., 6 miles south-west of Chikmagalúr. Until 1875, head-quarters of the *táluk* which now forms the western portion of Chikmagalúr *táluk*. Population (1871) 1304; not separately returned in Census Report of 1881. Situated at the entrance to the hill country lying west of the Bába Budan Mountains. Founded by a king of the Humcha dynasty, it passed through the hands of many local chiefs, until annexed to Mysore by Haidar Alí in 1763.

Vásudevanallúr.—Town in Sankaranainárkoil *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated on the Madura-Travancore road, in lat. 9° 13′ 45″ N., and long. 77° 26′ 30″ E. Founded in 1030. Population (1881) 5142, namely, Hindus, 4827; Muhammadans, 286; and Christians, 29. Number of houses, 1112.

Vattila-gundu (the *Batlagundu* of Orme).—Prosperous agricultural village in Madura District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 10° 9′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 50′ 30″ E., on the main road to the Palni Hills, from which it draws its water for irrigation. Population (1881) 11,503, namely, males 5668, and females 5835; occupying 1976 houses. Hindus number 10,719; Muhammadans, 622; and Christians, 162. In 1768, Vattila-gundu was the scene of military operations between the troops of Madura and Mysore. The latter captured it after six days' hard fighting, only to be driven out a few days later by a reinforced army from Madura.

Vattiráyiruppu.—Town in Srivilliputtúr *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency.—*See* WATRAP.

Váyalpád.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency. Area, 831 square miles. Population (1881) 104,462, namely, males 53,048, and females 51,414; and occupying 24,723 houses, in 1 town and 114 villages. Hindus number 96,062; Muhammadans, 8395; and Christians, 5. The sugar-cane of Váyalpád is famed over the whole of Southern India, and forms the principal article of trade. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 11; regular police, 93 men. Land revenue, £14,514.

Váyalpád.—Town in Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Váyalpád *táluk*; situated about 8 miles north-east of Madanapalli. Population (1881) 3695, namely, Hindus, 2994; Muhammadans, 698; and Christians, 3; occupying 903 houses.

Vayanádu.—*Táluk* or hill division in Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* WAINAD.

Vayitiri.—Town in Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* VYTERI.

Vedagangá.—River of the Deccan, tributary to the Dúdhgangá, which falls into the Krishna on its right bank in lat. 16° 35′ N., and long. 74° 42′ E., near the northern boundary of Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency. Both streams rise in the Native State of Kolhápur.

Vedávati (or *Hagari*).—River of Southern India, tributary to the Tungabhadra. Formed by the junction of two streams — the Veda and the Avati — which both rise in the western slopes of the Bába Budan mountains in Kadúr District, Mysore. The Veda is at first called the Gauri-halla, and does not assume its better known name until after it has issued from the great AYYANKERE LAKE. In a similar manner the Avati forms the Madaga-kere tank. The two streams both flow to the north-east, and unite just below the town of Kadúr. Thence the Vedávati continues its north-easterly course into the District of Chítaldrúg. It receives many tributaries on its way from both sides; and after penetrating the hill-gorge of the Mári-kanive and passing the town of Hiriyúr, it turns due north, and passes into the Madras District of Bellary. Henceforth it assumes the name of Hagari, which is interpreted to mean 'freeing from the bonds of sin.' Continuing in a northerly direction, and leaving Bellary town about 10 miles to the west, it falls into the Tungabhadra just above the village of Huchahalli.

The river is shallow, and can be forded in most parts of its course except in the rainy season. During the summer months, a large tract of sand is left dry in its bed, reaching 2 miles in width near Bellary. In this neighbourhood, it is supposed to be gradually changing its channel. It is bridged for the trunk road at Hiriyúr, and for the Bellary Branch Railway at Permadevanhalli. Apart from the two great tanks already mentioned, the Vedávati is not much used for purposes of irrigation. In Kadúr District, the entire river system irrigates 1568 acres, yielding a revenue of £3121. Lower down, its sandy bed supplies many *kapile* or sub-surface wells. A proposal has long been under consideration to embank the Vedávati at the narrow gorge of the Mári-kanive, and thus create an immense reservoir, at an estimated cost of £150,000, which would irrigate 50,000 acres in the fertile but arid plains of Hiriyúr.

Vehar.—Lake in Salsette Island, Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency, about 15 miles from Bombay city, from which place it can easily be reached by road. The following account of the lake is taken from Mr. J. M. Maclean's excellent *Guide to Bombay* (1875):—

'The lake is an artificial reservoir, formed to provide the town

of Bombay, which used to be wholly dependent for its drinking water on the wells in the island, with a constant and ample supply of pure water. In 1853, it was fortunately determined by the Board of Conservancy of Bombay to adopt a proposal made by Lieutenant-Colonel Crawford, R.E., and Lieutenant (now Colonel) De Lisle, R.E., to dam up the valley of the Gopur river—which ran into the Sion creek, and two centuries ago sometimes overflowed the northern part of the island of Bombay—near the sources of the river amongst the hills of Salsette. This project was carried into execution by Mr. Conybeare, C.E.; the dams were completed and the delivery of water into the town commenced in 1860. The lake covers an area of about 1400 acres, and has a gathering ground, exclusive of the area of the water surface, of about 2550 acres. It is formed by three dams, two of which were rendered necessary to prevent the water escaping over ridges on the margin of the basin, which were lower in level than the top of the main dam. The quantity of water supplied yearly by the reservoir is about 8,000,000 gallons a day, or between 12 and 13 gallons a head for the population of Bombay. It is forbidden to carry on any trade, manufacture, or agriculture within the watershed of the lake, and the wildness of the surrounding country keeps the water free from risk of any contamination from outside. For many years the water was praised as "exceedingly pure," but of late years it has deteriorated through the growth of vegetation within the lake. There are at present no means either of emptying the reservoir and cleaning it out, or of filtering its water, but the municipality has various schemes under consideration for improving the quality of the water-supply. The total cost of construction of the Vehar reservoir, and of laying down the pipes to bring the water into the town, amounted to £373,650. In 1872, some alarm having been felt as to the sufficiency of the quantity of water drawn from the gathering ground of Vehar, the Tulsí Lake, adjoining it, was formed at the cost of £40,000, and the water thus impounded kept available to be thrown into Vehar.'

A new project was sanctioned by the Bombay municipality in 1875, for bringing an independent main from Tulsí to the top of Malabar Hill, at a cost of £400,000. This is estimated to supply 6 gallons a head additional each day for the whole population, besides providing water for the higher parts of Bombay not reached by the main from Vehar.

Vejanoness. — Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 1 tribute-payer. Area, 29 square miles. Population (1881) 175. The revenue is estimated at £49; and tribute is paid of £3, 2s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Vekria.—Petty State in the Soráth *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 1 tribute-payer.

Area, 8 square miles. Population (1881) 774. The revenue is estimated at £400; and tribute is paid of £5, 0s. 9½d. to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Vellakovil.—Village in Dhárápuram *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 56′ 45″ N., long. 77° 46′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 4968, namely, Hindus 4953, and Muhammadans 15; occupying 1122 houses.

Vellar (*Vasishthanadi*).—River of the Madras Presidency, formed by the streams of the Tinúnda and Kalráyan hills in Salem District. It flows through the Attúr pass into the plain of South Arcot, and across the latter District into the sea at Porto Novo; total length about 135 miles. A little above Vriddáchalam, it receives the waters of the Manimuktár (or Manimuktánadi), which also rise in the Kalráyan hills. The river is bridged where it crosses the trunk roads, except near Porto Novo, and also by the South Indian Railway near Porto Novo. The trunk road bridge near Porto Novo, the chief of all, was destroyed by floods some years ago, and has not been rebuilt. Thirteen anicuts or dams cross the Vellar in Salem District, and two in South Arcot.

Vellore.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 454 square miles. Population (1881) 170,216, namely, males 83,471, and females 86,745; occupying 24,642 houses, in 2 towns and 167 villages. Hindus number 144,592; Muhammadans, 22,892; Christians, 2684; and 'others,' 48. The northern portion of the *táluk*, which lies along the right bank of the Palár, is flat and open; but most of the rest is covered with numerous hill ranges. More than one-fourth of the total area is under forest. In 1883, Vellore *táluk* contained 1 civil and 4 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 138 men.

Vellore (*Vellúr, Rayi Velliyúr, Ráya-ellúru*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated on the river Palár. Lat. 12° 55′ 17″ N., long. 79° 10′ 17″ E. Population (1881) 37,491, namely, males 17,605, and females 19,886; occupying 5955 houses. Hindus numbered 27,508; Muhammadans, 8296; Christians, 1686; and 'others,' 1.

Vellore is a military station, the head-quarters of the Sub-Collector, and a municipality; it contains courts, military offices, central jail, church, missions, hospital, also post, telegraph, and several departmental offices. Station on the South-west line of the Madras Railway, 80 miles from Madras, and 15 miles (west) from Arcot.

The fortress was built about 1274–83, according to local tradition, by a native of Bhadráchalam, and handed over to the Rájás of Vijayanagar. About the middle of the 17th century the Sultan of Bijápur seized Vellore. In 1676, the Maráthás under Takaji Ráo captured Vellore after four and a half months' siege. In 1708, Dáúd Khán came from Delhi and ousted the Maráthás. And in 1710,

when it was, according to Orme, the strongest fortress in the Karnátik, it was given by Dost Alí to his son-in-law, whose son, Murtizá Alí, murdered Sabdar Alí here in 1741. For more than twenty years the fort was the stronghold of Murtizá Alí, who defied the authority of his relative and lawful chief, the Nawáb of Arcot, and his English allies. The latter marched against the town in 1756, but retired without making any serious effort. Murtizá Alí held the fort till 1760, when an English force again appeared before its walls, retiring at the earnest entreaty of the *kiladár.*

A few years later, however, Vellore was occupied by an English garrison; and in 1768, was threatened by Haidar Alí. In 1780, Haidar invested the place, which held out against overwhelming numbers and innumerable difficulties. A dozen times in the course of the siege there was not rice for three days' consumption, and all the energies of the Madras Government and of Sir Eyre Coote were devoted to throwing in supplies. Wilks says: 'Haidar had, after the capture of Arcot in the preceding year, allotted the largest portion of his army and his best battering train for the siege of Vellore. This fortress, nearly an exact square, still exhibiting in its antique battlements for match-locks and bows and arrows the evidence of no modern date, was built according to the ideas of strength which prevailed at the period of its erection, when the use of cannon was little understood, close to a range of hills, to favour the introduction of supplies, or the eventual escape of the garrison; and thus situated, it is also commanded by those hills, a defect which its Maráthá and Muhammadan conquerors remedied in part by fortifying the points which overlooked it. These points, as the use of artillery came to determine the defence of places, became accordingly the keys of the fort below; for although surrounded by a rampart of masonry which might be deemed Cyclopean, and a wet ditch of great breadth, the possession of these points would command in flank and reverse (although at too great a distance for certain effect) three faces of the fort, and would leave but one face affording good cover. The arrangements of the siege, directed by French officers, were judiciously directed to two simultaneous operations, the principal hill fort being the primary object, while approaches and batteries from the west were pushed on to the proper positions for breaching the south-western face of the lower fort and enfilading that next to the hill, which, in the event of success in the primary object, would alone afford adequate cover to the garrison from the fire of the hill.' The assault, which was most gallantly and persistently delivered, was repulsed, and the siege reduced to a blockade, which the garrison, although reduced to the greatest straits, withstood for two years, till finally it was raised by the advance of an army from Madras and Haidar's death.

In 1791, Vellore was the basis of Lord Cornwallis' march on Banga-

lore. After the fall of Seringapatam (1799), the family of Tipú were detained here; and to their intrigues has been attributed the revolt of the Sepoys at Vellore in 1806, when all the officers and other Europeans were massacred. The revolt was promptly put down by Colonel Gillespie, and the Mysore princes removed to Bengal.

Besides its fortress, which contains many interesting buildings, Vellore possesses a Vishnuite temple with some good carving. Chanda Sáhib's mosque is also deserving of mention. The town, although hot, is healthy. The municipality has done much to improve it. The income from taxation in 1883–84 was £2489; the incidence of taxation, 1s. 4d. per head. The garrison consists of 1 Native infantry regiment, about 700 strong. The cultivation of sweet-scented flowers is one of the industries of the place, and many bales of these are daily sent by rail to Madras.

Velpúr.—Town in Tanuku *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 41′ N., long. 81° 45′ E. Population (1881) 6282, namely, Hindus, 6161; Christians, 67; and Muhammadans, 54. Number of houses, 1055.

Vembakottai.—Town in Satúr *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 20′ N., long. 77° 50′ E.; situated about 10 miles west of Satúr. Population (1881) 1209, namely, Hindus, 1180; Christians, 24; and Muhammadans, 5; occupying 283 houses.

Vempalli.—Town in Pulivendala *táluk*, Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 14° 21′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 30′ 10″ E., on the river Pápaginí, about 22 miles south-west of Cuddapah town. Population (1881) 5811, namely, Hindus 4770, and Muhammadans 1041; occupying 1383 houses. A curious temple to Nandi stands on a round hill overhanging the river.

Vengurla.—Sub-division of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 65 square miles. Population (1881) 34,237, namely, males 16,742, and females 17,495; occupying 5980 houses, in 1 town and 9 villages. Hindus number 32,390; Muhammadans, 692; and 'others,' 1155. The Sub-division is situated in the south of the District, and has the Portuguese territory of Goa on its southern border. In the north of the Sub-division is a succession of high, bare, rocky plains and narrow valleys. Cocoa-nut and areca-nut palms flourish on the hill-sides. The valley soil is generally rich. Water is abundant. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 45 men. Land revenue (1878), £4677.

Vengurla (*Vingurla*).—Seaport, town, and municipality, with fort, in Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Vengurla Sub-division; situated 84 miles south by east of Ratnágiri town, in lat. 15° 51′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 39′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 8947,

namely, Hindus, 7999; Muhammadans, 441; Christians, 415; Jains, 86; Pársís, 5; and 'others,' 1. The average annual value of sea-borne trade at this port for the five years ending 1883–84 is thus returned—Imports, £358,433; exports, £539,383. Piece-goods, yarn, silk, sugar, and fish are the chief articles of import; and cocoa-nuts, coir, molasses, and *káju* the principal exports. Vengurla was formerly a retreat for the pirates who infested this coast, until in 1812 it was ceded by the chief of Sáwantwári to the British Government. The Vengurla port lighthouses (which are distinct from the VENGURLA ROCK LIGHTHOUSE—*see* following article) were erected in 1869, and are situated on the mainland at the northern point of the bay. They are masonry towers built on a hill. The height of the lanterns above high-water are 250 feet, and that of the building from base to vane is 186 feet. Double (25 feet apart) white, fixed, dioptric lights of order 6, which illuminate an area of 54 square miles, and are visible from the deck of a ship 9 miles distant. From mid-June to the end of August the port is closed. Municipality, established in 1875, had in 1883–84 an income of £1651; incidence of taxation, 3s. 5½d. per head.

In 1638, the Dutch had a trade settlement at Vengurla, where they victualled their ships during their eight months' blockade of Goa. In 1660, under the name of Mingrela, it is mentioned as a large town stretching half a league along the coast, with one of the best roads in India. About 1660, Sivají placed a garrison in the town, and in 1664, in punishment of a revolt, burnt it to the ground. In 1675 it was burned by the Mughals. In 1696, the Khemsáwant of Sáwantwári overran the country, and on pretence of visiting the Dutch chief, seized and plundered their factory. While held by Khemsáwant, Vengurla is said to have been attacked and plundered by Angria. In 1772, a small factory was established at Vengurla by the British. In 1812, the town was ceded to the British by the Ráni of Sáwantwári.

Vengurla Rock Lighthouse.—This lighthouse (which is not to be confounded with the Vengurla port lighthouses, described in the preceding article), erected in 1870, is situated on an isolated rock in the west of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 15° 54′ N., long. 73° 30′ 15″ E. Nine miles west-north-west of Vengurla lie the Vengurla rocks or Burnt islands, a group of rocky islets stretching about three miles from north to south, and one mile from east to west. On the outermost of three larger rocks is the lighthouse. It is a masonry tower, built on a rising ground. The height of the lantern above high-water is 110 feet, and that of the building is 30 feet. It exhibits a single white, fixed, dioptric light of order 4, which illuminates an area of 72 square miles, and is visible from the deck of a ship 15 miles distant.

Venkatagiri.—*Zamíndárí táluk* or Sub-division of Nellore, Madras

Presidency. Area, 426 square miles. Population (1881) 41,915, namely, males 21,482, and females 20,433; occupying 8584 houses, in 1 town and 89 villages. Hindus number 40,136; Muhammadans, 1698; Christians, 69; and 'others,' 12.

Venkatagiri.—Town in Nellore District, Madras Presidency, and the head-quarters of Venkatagiri *táluk* and *zamíndárí*. Lat. 13° 57′ 7″ N., long. 79° 37′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 7989, namely, Hindus, 6816; Muhammadans, 1149; and Christians, 24. Station of a deputy *tahsíldár*.

Venkatagiri.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 2117¼ square miles. The estate includes the whole of the Venkatagiri *táluk*, besides large tracts in the neighbouring Government *táluks*. Darsi, Podili, and Polúr *táluks*, and part of Gúdúr, Kanigiri, and Ongole *táluks* belong to this estate. The estate pays to Government a *peshkash* or permanent revenue of £37,431. The present *zámíndár* claims to be the twenty-seventh in lineal descent from the founder of the family.

Ventipur.—Village and ruins in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Northern India; identified with the ancient capital of the valley; situated in lat. 33° 54′ N., and long. 75° 9′ E., near the right bank of the river Jehlam (Jhelum), 16 miles south-east of Srínagar on the Islámábád road. Thornton states that it was founded, according to local chronicles, by Avánti Varmma, King of Kashmír, about 876 A.D., who called it Avántipur, after his own name. Remains of two great buildings, known as the Venkadáti Devi and the Ventimadáti. Though extremely dilapidated, they present striking examples of early Kashmírian architecture.

Vepery.—Suburb of MADRAS CITY (*q.v.*). Lat. 13° 5′ 25″ N., long. 80° 18′ 40″ E.

Veppattur.—Town in Combaconum *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5862, namely, Hindus, 5106; Christians, 437; and Muhammadans, 319; occupying 1029 houses.

Veppu.—Sub-division of Cochin State, Madras Presidency.—*See* VYPIN.

Veránilai.—Town in Melúr *táluk*, Madura District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5996, namely, Hindus, 5732; Muhammadans, 253; and Christians, 11; occupying 1320 houses.

Verapoli.—Town in Travancore State, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 10° 4′ N., and long. 76° 19′ 20″ E., 9 miles north-east of Cochin; the seat of a Carmelite mission and of the Vicar-Apostolic. Dr. Day thus describes Verapoli: 'The monastery buildings occupy a large space of ground. The church was commenced about the year 1673, when the island on which it now stands was destitute both of houses and cultivation, and formed part of the territory of the Rájá of Cochin. The

building consists of three straight piles of masonry, all of which (excepting the church) are two or three storeys high; their extremities face the river bank. A passage along the centre, from north to south, forms a communication between various parts of the structure. The church is situated at the northern end of the building, and is a miniature representation of St. Peter's at Rome. It is perhaps the most exquisite little building in this part of India. In its various chapels are rude emblems of saints, and pictures of rather a primitive description. Verapoli formerly belonged to Cochin.' Verapoli gives its name to the Vicariate-Apostolic of Verapoli, established in 1659. Though smaller in area than any of the 17 vicariates of India (comprising, in fact, only the State of Cochin and part of Travancore), it contains the largest Roman Catholic population and the greatest number of native priests. The *Madras Catholic Directory* for 1885 gives the following figures:—Roman Catholics, 280,600; priests, 389. Two-thirds of these are Roman Catholics of the Syrian rite, as also are more than three-fourths of the priests. There are only 16 Europeans —2 bishops, and 14 priests, all Carmelites. Besides these Roman Catholics, there are a large number of Syro-Nestorians or Jacobites (often described as Syrian Christians).

Verasharoon.—Town in Godávari District, Madras Presidency.—*See* VIRAVASARAM.

Veráwal (*Velávval*, formerly *Verrole*).—Port and town in the Native State of Junágarh, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 20° 53′ N., and long. 72° 26′ E., 20 miles south-east of Mangrol, 8½ miles from Sutrapárá, and 2 miles north-west of Somnáth temple. Population (1881) 12,111, namely, males 5744, and females 6367. Muhammadans number 6052; Hindus, 5097; Jains, 958; Christians, 3; and Párs, 1. Considerable trade is carried on with Muscat, Karáchí, and Bombay. The port has lately been much improved, and supplies are plentiful. The boat anchorage is partially protected from north-west winds by a rocky spit running off from the outer bastion of the town, but the bottom is rocky inside of 11 fathoms. The coast east of Veráwal is low and sandy for 4 or 5 miles.

Vernag.—Spring in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Northern India; situated in the south-eastern extremity of the Srínagar valley, in lat. 33° 29′ N., and long. 75° 15′ E. Described by Thornton as rising with a great volume into a basin 120 yards in circumference, built by order of Jahángír. Forms one of the chief feeders of the Jehlam (Jhelum) river.

Vesáva (or *Versova*).—Port in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 8′ 45″ N., long. 72° 51′ E.; situated about 12 miles north of Bombay city. Close to it is the fortified island of Madh. Vesáva fort stands at the entrance of the creek between Vesáva village

and the island of Madh, on a bold promontory of beautiful though not very large basalt columns. It was probably built by the Portuguese, and repaired and strengthened by the Maráthás. Average annual value of sea-borne trade for five years ending 1881–82 — imports, £10,366, and exports, £25,885. In 1881–82, the value of the trade was—imports, £8707, and exports, £29,551.

Vettattapúdiyangadi.—Town in Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* BETULPIUDANGADI.

Vettavalum.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Kallakurchi *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. The annual rent is £290, and the *peshkash* or fixed revenue £7.

Vichhawad.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £350.

Vigái (*Vygai, Vygay*).—River in Madura District, Madras Presidency. *See* VAIGAI.

Vijaiadrug.—Port and Customs division of ports, Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* VIZIADRUG.

Vijápur.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Bastar State, Central Provinces; comprising 98 villages. Area, 170 square miles. Population (1881) 12,653, chiefly Kois and Telingas.

Vijápur.—Chief town of the Vijápur Sub-division of Baroda State, Gujarát, Bombay. Lat. 23° 33′ 30″ N., long. 72° 48′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 10,081, namely, males 4898, and females 5183. Police station, dispensary, Gujarátí school, post-office, and two native resting-houses.

Vijayanagar.—Village in Hospet *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 19′ 50″ N., long. 76° 30′ E. Population (1881) 693, inhabiting 94 houses. The proper name of this village is HAMPI; but Vijayanagar was the name of the dynasty and the kingdom which had its capital here, and was the last great Hindu power of the South. Founded by two adventurers in the middle of the 14th century, it lasted for two centuries, till its star went down at Tálikot in 1565 A.D. A great annual festival. For a description of the ruins of the old city of Vijayanagar, which cover a total area of 9 square miles, see HAMPI.

Vijayanagaram.—*Zamíndárí* and town in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency.—*See* VIZIANAGRAM.

Vijayanoness.—State in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* VEJANONESS.

Vilavankod.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 146 square miles. Population (1875) 69,553; (1881) 69,688, namely, males 35,101, and females 34,587; occupying 14,589 houses in 114 *karas* or villages. Density of population, 477·3 persons per square mile. Hindus number 53,229; Christians, 13,949;

and Muhammadans, 2510. Of the Christians, 6995 are returned as Roman Catholics, 6943 Protestants, and 11 Syrians.

Villupuram. — *Táluk* or Sub-division of South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 508 square miles. Population (1881) 243,896, namely, males 123,183, and females 120,713; occupying 33,003 houses, in 2 towns and 283 villages. Hindus number 231,456; Christians, 6342; Muhammadans, 5390; and 'others,' 708. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 16; regular police, 182 men. Land revenue, £42,129.

Villupuram (the *Belpore* of the old Maps, etc.).—Chief town in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency, head-quarters of Villupuram *táluk*, and a station on the South Indian Railway, the junction station for the Pondicherri branch, 25 miles west of Pondicherri; situated on the Trichinopoli trunk road, in lat. 11° 56′ 35″ N., and long. 79° 31′ 50″ E. Population (1881) 8241, namely, Hindus, 6737; Muhammadans, 1270; and Christians, 234; occupying 1327 houses. Villupuram was taken after a slight struggle by Captain Wood in 1760, and was held by a British garrison to intercept communication with Gingi.

Vinchur.—Petty State in Násik District, Bombay Presidency. The State consists of 45 villages in Násik District, 3 villages in Ahmadnagar District, and 2 in Poona District. Population, about 30,000; rental, about £7300. Vinchur was granted as a military or *saranjám* estate to Vithal Sivdev, an ancestor of the present chief, who distinguished himself at the capture of Ahmadábád by the Maráthás in 1755. The chief is a first-class *sardár*, and a Companion of the Order of the Star of India. He settles without appeal such civil suits as arise among the people of his villages, and in criminal matters has the power of a first-class magistrate.

Vinchur.—Town in Násik District, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Vinchur State; situated in lat. 20° 7′ N., and long. 74° 17′ E., 4 miles south-west of the Lásalgáon station, on the north-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Population (1881) 4890. Vinchur is surrounded by a mud wall in fair repair. Weekly market on Fridays.

Vindhya.—A great series of mountain ranges separating the Gangetic basin from the Deccan, and forming a well-marked, although not quite continuous, chain across India. The name was formerly used in an indefinite manner to include the Sátpura Hills, south of the Narbadá; and indeed certain of the *Puránas* apply it specially to the Sátpuras. It is now restricted to the ranges on the north of that river.

A full account of the Vindhyan series of mountains will be found in the *Geology of India*, chap. iv., by Mr. H. B. Medlicott. A very brief notice must here suffice. Popularly speaking, the Vindhya ranges

may be taken as forming the great northern wall of the triangle, whose eastern and western sides, the Ghâts, run down either coast of India to an apex near Cape Comorin. The Vindhyas run eastwards from Gujarát across Málwá and the central portions of India, until their easternmost spurs abut on the valley of the Ganges at Rájmahal. The vast hill country, strictly included within this series of chains, lies between lat. 22° 25′ and 24° 30″ N., and between long. 73° 34′ and 80° 45′ E. Its elevation is from 1500 to 4500 feet in height, and nowhere exceeds 5000 feet. These ranges long formed an ethnical and political barrier between the Gangetic valley and the Deccan, and occupy a prominent position alike in the legendary history of the Sanskrit epics, and in the invasions and administrative arrangements of the Mughal Emperors. Their various sections are described in the Districts and Provinces through which they pass.

From a geological point of view, they have given their name to one of the recognised formations of India. The 'Vindhyan formation' was at first employed as a collective term for the beds in the great rock-basin, stretching in an east and west direction from Sasseram to Nímach (Neemuch), a distance of 600 miles, and from north to south for 300 miles, from Agra to Hoshangábád. Throughout the great part of their border, the Vindhyan sandstones are unconformably related to transition or gneissic rock; but in the eastern branch of the area, in Bundelkhand and the Son valley, they rest with little or no unconformity upon thick deposits of very different character. These lower beds were at first noticed under local names in the several areas, but the convenience and fitness of having a common name for deposits so nearly related was soon felt, and the term Lower Vindhyan has been used in this sense. For purposes of scientific treatment, the Vindhyan series is divided into the Lower and Upper Vindhyans. The Lower Vindhyans include the Karnúl area, the Palnád area, the Bhíma basin, the Mahánadi and Godávari areas, the Son area, and the Bundelkhand area. The Upper Vindhyans arrange themselves under the Son-Narbadá boundary, the o undary in Bundelkhand, the boundary on the Ganges, and the Aravalli boundary. Diamonds occur in the Upper Vindhyans. The great majority of the diggings are alluvial; but the principal workings, upon which most labour is spent, are in a bed at the very base of the Rewá shales. There are also numerous pits, apparently surface diggings, in the gorges and on the slope of the upper Rewá sandstone south of Panna, and at a much higher elevation than any present outcrop of the bottom shales or of the Lower Vindhyas. The operations are carried on actively only during the hot weather, and, unless visited at this season, trustworthy observations cannot be made.

The Vindhyas occupy a considerable place in the mythology of India as the great demarcating line between the Madhya-desha, or

'middle land' of the Sanskrit invaders, and the non-Aryan Deccan. They are still inhabited to a large extent by aboriginal races, and the name Vindhya in Sanskrit means also a 'hunter.' The Vindhyas are personified in Sanskrit literature, where they appear as a jealous monarch, the rival of King Himálaya, who called upon the sun to revolve round his throne as he did around the peak Meru. When the sun refused, the mountain began to raise its head to obstruct that luminary, and to tower above Himálaya and Meru. The gods invoked the aid of Agastya, the spiritual guide of Vindhya. This sage called upon the Vindhya mountain to bow down before him, and afford him an easy passage to and from the south. It obeyed, and Agastya passed over. But he never returned, and so the mountain remains in its humbled condition, far inferior to the Himálaya, till this day.

Vingurla.—Sub-division, seaport town, and lighthouse in Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* VENGURLA.

Vinjamúr.—Agricultural village in Udayagiri *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 15′ N., long. 79° 37′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 4623, namely, Hindus 4384, and Muhammadans 239. Number of houses, 934.

Vinukonda.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Area, 666 square miles. Population (1881) 66,977, namely, males 34,113, and females 32,864; occupying 11,253 houses in 71 villages. Hindus number 58,218; Christians, 5158; Muhammadans, 3594; and 'others,' 7. Traces of antiquity are found all over the *táluk*. Stone circles (dolmens) abound on every hand; and nearly every village contains inscribed stones not yet deciphered. Copper and iron are found. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 20; regular police, 174 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 6. Land revenue, £12,692.

Vinukonda (*Innukondah*, 'Hill of Hearing').—Hill and town in Kistna District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Vinukonda *táluk*. Lat. 16° 3′ 30″ N., long. 79° 46′ 40″ E. An interesting hill fort, round which a number of legends cluster. Here it was that Ráma first heard of the abduction of Sítá. The hill (600 feet above sea-level) is surrounded by a triple fortification, within which were formerly enclosed the usual reservoirs, granaries, etc. Population of the town (1881) 5638, namely, Hindus, 4662; Muhammadans, 973; and Christians, 3; occupying 1100 houses.

Víraghottam.—Town in Palkonda *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5408, namely, Hindus, 5280; Christians, 101; Muhammadans, 23; and 'others,' 4; occupying 1161 houses.

Virajanadi.—Artificial channel drawn off from the Káveri (Cauvery) river in Mysore District, Mysore State, by means of the Balmuri dam. It

has a total course of 40 miles on the right bank of the river, and used to supply water-power to the sugar and iron factories which were at Palhalli.

Viramgám.—Sub-division of Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 677 square miles. Population (1881) 136,574, namely, males 70,854, and females 65,720; occupying 32,748 houses, in 1 town and 135 villages. Hindus number 118,334; Muhammadans, 11,342; and 'others,' 6898. Except in the north, where the surface is broken by rolling sandhills, with patches of brushwood, Viramgám is a plain of thinly wooded light soil in the east, and of open black soil to the west and south, ending in the salt level of the Rann of Cutch. More than half of the area of the Sub-division is taken up by the lands of alienated and *tálukdárí* villages; the rest contains 202,352 acres of occupied lands, of which 137,629 acres, or nearly 80 per cent., were under cultivation in 1878. Crops—millets and pulse, cotton, wheat, and rice. In 1858–59, the year of settlement, 4435 holdings were recorded with an average area of $23\frac{1}{7}$ acres, paying an average Government assessment of £1, 17s. $3\frac{1}{2}$d. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 95 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 443. Land revenue, £211,416.

Viramgám.—Town and municipality in Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency, head-quarters of Viramgám Sub-division, and a station on the Wadhwán branch of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central Indian Railway, 40 miles west of Ahmadábád city; situated in lat. 23° 7′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 7′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 18,990, namely, males 9547, and females 9443. Hindus number 12,274; Muhammadans, 4408; Jains, 2187; Pársís, 19; Christians, 9; and 'others,' 93. Municipal income in 1883–84, £1696; incidence of taxation, 1s. $7\frac{3}{4}$d. per head. Sub-judge's court, post-office, and dispensary.

Virampura.—Petty State in Sankheda Mehwás, Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1 square mile; 2 villages. The chief is named Nathu Khán Pathán. The revenue is estimated at £78; and tribute of £10, 6s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Víra-rájendra-pet (or *Virájpet*).—Town in the territory of Coorg, Southern India, and administrative head-quarters of the Yedenálknád *táluk*; situated on the Merkára-Cannanore road; distant from Merkára 20 miles, and from Cannanore 52 miles. Lat. 12° 12′ 34″ N., long. 75° 51′ 6″ E. Population (1881) 4576; municipal revenue (1881–82), £603; rate of taxation, 2s. 8d. per head. The town was founded in 1792 by Rájá Dodda Víra Rájendra, the hero of Coorg independence, on the spot where he had met General Abercromby in the preceding year. In 1805, a colony of native Christians, immigrants from the Konkan, were encouraged to settle here, under the charge of

a Roman Catholic priest from Mangalore. The priest receives an annual allowance of £24 from the Government, which has also given at various times grants amounting to £400 towards the restoration of the church. The colony in 1881 numbered 408 souls, with as many more in the country round. They are all descendants of the original settlers, and are described as being in poor circumstances. One of the largest weekly markets in Coorg is held at Víra-rájendra-pet on Fridays. There is a charitable dispensary, at which 3993 patients received relief in 1881–82; and an Anglo-vernacular school, with 170 pupils. The climate is very unhealthy. In the neighbourhood are the most extensive rice-fields in Coorg. The District magistrate visits the town for one week in the middle of each month.

Víravalli.—*Zamíndárí táluk* in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Area, 504 square miles. Population (1881) 176,052, namely, males 89,296, and females 86,756; occupying 36,400 houses in 238 villages. Hindus number 174,769; Muhammadans, 1257; Christians, 3; and 'others,' 23. Head-quarters at MADGULA.

Víravanallúr.—Town in Ambásamúdram *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 41′ 20″ N., long. 77° 34′ 35″ E. Situated about 5 miles east of Ambásamúdram. Population (1881) 12,318, namely, males 5845, and females 6473; occupying 2813 houses. Hindus number 11,295; Muhammadans, 520; and Christians, 503. Large weaving trade.

Víravásaram (the *Verasheroon* of early historians).—Town in Bhímavaram *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 21′ N., long. 81° 40′ E.; situated 8 miles north-west of Narsápur. Population (1881) 5257, namely, Hindus, 5169; Muhammadans, 85; and Christians, 3; occupying 887 houses. One of the earliest English settlements, founded in 1634; withdrawn 1662; re-established 1677. In 1702 no longer existing.

Viráwah.—Village in Thar and Párkar District, Sind; situated 15 miles from Nagar Párkar. Lat. 24° 30′ 30″ N., long. 70° 48′ E. Population (1881) less than 2000. The Musalmáns are chiefly Kumbhárs; and the Hindus are chiefly of the Lohána and Oswal castes. The head-quarters station of a *tappadár*, with police outpost, Government school, *dharmsála* or travellers' rest-house, and cattle pound. The trade is unimportant, and the only manufacture is cutlery, chiefly knives.

Virdel.—Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 504 square miles. Population (1881) 61,461, namely, males 30,923, and females 30,538; occupying 9975 houses in 140 villages. Hindus number 51,971; Muhammadans, 2775; and 'others,' 6715. The northern portion of the Sub-division forms a continuation of the rich black soil of the Tápti plain; and the southern is for the most

part hilly and waving, with large tracts of waste land used for grazing cattle. Except along the banks of the Tápti and the Pánjhra, Virdel is poorly supplied with surface water. The two chief rivers are—the Tápti flowing along the entire north boundary for a distance of 35 miles, and its tributary the Pánjhra flowing along the eastern boundary. In 1860–61, the year of settlement, 7808 holdings were recorded with an average area of 21·4 acres, and paying an average assessment of £2, 15s. 1½d. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 2 criminal courts; police circle (*tháná*), 1; regular police, 60 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 175. Land revenue, £27,251. Head-quarters at SINKHERA.

Virpur.—Native State in the Hallár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Contains 12 villages. Area, 29 square miles. Population (1881) 5338. The common forms of sickness are fever and small-pox. The principal products are grain and cotton. Virpur ranks as a fourth-class State in Káthiáwár; its ruler executed the usual engagements in 1807. His jurisdiction was in 1875 restored to the Thakúr, having been withdrawn in 1867 to punish his collusion with the Wágher outlaws. The present (1882–83) chief is Thakúr Suráji; a Hindu of the Járeja clan of Rájputs. He is thirty-seven years old, and administers his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £3540, pays a tribute of £411, 8s. to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh, and maintains a military force of 49 men. The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession, and do not hold a *sanad* authorizing adoption. There are 2 schools, with 92 pupils. Transit dues are not levied in the State.

Virpur.—Town in the Hallár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, and the capital of Virpur State. Situated on the high-road between Gondal and Jetpur, about 10 miles south-west of Gondal, and 8 miles north-east of Jetpur. Population (1881) 1342.

Virpur Kharedi.—Township in the Hallár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated 20 miles north-west of Virpur, and about 30 miles south-west of Rájkot. Population (1881) 1360. Kharedi was originally the chief seat of the Virpur chiefdom, but now occupies the second place. In former times it was a place of some importance, and gave a name to a sub-tribe of Audich Bráhmans who are called Kharediás.

Viruddháchalam (or *Vridachellam*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 566 square miles. Population (1881) 187,068, namely, males 92,544, and females 94,524; occupying 23,378 houses, in 1 town and 304 villages. Hindus number 182,050; Muhammadans, 3131; and Christians, 1887. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 12; regular police, 103 men. Land revenue, £36,718.

Viruddháchalam (*'Old Hill'*).—Town in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Viruddháchalam *táluk*. Lat. 11° 31′ 30″ N., long. 79° 24′ E. Formerly the chief town of a District. Population (1881) 7347, namely, Hindus, 6771; Muhammadans, 549; and Christians, 27; occupying 995 houses. Viruddháchalam contains a large fortified temple; and, being situated on the road from Cuddalore to Trichinopoli, it was of importance as a strategical point in the wars of the Karnátik, and changed hands more than once. Here Lord Pigott and Clive were nearly captured by the French in 1751. Viruddháchalam is a sacred town, and many legends are connected with it.

Virudupati.—Town in Satúr *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency, and a station on the South Indian Railway, 71 miles from Tuticorin, and 202 from Negapatam. Lat. 9° 35′ N., long. 78° 1′ E. Population (1881) 5536, namely, Hindus, 4859; Muhammadans, 626; and Christians, 51; occupying 1088 houses. An active trading centre.

Virwa.—Petty State in the Hallár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 1 tribute-payer. Area, 76 square miles. Population (1881) 176. The revenue is estimated at £100; tribute is paid of £14, 18s. to the British Government, and £4, 8s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Visákhapatnam.—District and town in Madras Presidency.—*See* VIZAGAPATAM.

Visápur.—Hill fort in Poona District, Bombay Presidency; situated about 8 miles south-east of Khandála. The rocky scarp of Visápur is crowned by a smooth bare hill-top, at its highest point 3550 feet above sea-level. Near the middle of its length two ravines, one running down the north, and the other down the south face, narrowing in the centre, hollow the hill into the shape of an hour-glass. Each half of the hill rises into a gently rounded knoll. Round the edge of the hill-top runs a wall, high and strengthened by towers along the west face. In other parts, except where the rock is not sheer and the crest has been scarped by a masonry lining or pavement, it is little more than a stone and mud breastwork. In other parts, according to the lie of the ground, the defences vary from strong walls backed by masonry platforms where the slope was naturally easy, to a mere parapet of dry stone where the plateau ends in a precipice. Besides the wall round the hill-top there are three chief works—massive masonry bastions that in both ravines flank the central gateway; a strong masonry tower at the north-east corner; and a great outstanding masonry-lined crag that guards the hill to the north-west. Visápur is said to have been built by Peshwá Bálájí Vishwanáth (1714–20). In 1818, it was occupied without resistance by the British.

Vishalgarh.—Native State in the Political Agency of Kolhápur, Bombay Presidency; its central point is situated in about lat. 16° 52′ N.,

and long. 73° 50′ E. Area, 235 square miles. Population (1881) 31,094; estimated gross revenue, about £12,600. Lying along the eastern slopes of the main line of the Sahyádri Hills, the country is for the most part rugged, yielding little but timber and brushwood. The ruler of this State, with the title of Pratinidhi or vicegerent, is a feudatory of Kolhápur, paying a yearly tribute of £598. Purusurám Trimbak, at that time commandant of the Vishalgarh fort, was in 1697, by Rájárám I., the younger son of Sivájí the Great, raised to the rank of Pratinidhi, the highest of the original Maráthá dignities. Purusurám and his son supporting different sides in the struggle for headship (1700–31) between the Sátára and Kolhápur branches of Sivají's family, the former was created Pratinidhi of Sátára, and the latter Pratinidhi of Kolhápur. Bhagwant Ráo Abáji, the first chief brought into connection with the British Government, died in 1819. The next three succeeded to the estate by adoption. The last of these died in 1871, leaving an infant. This child, Abáji Krishna Panth Pratinidhi, a Hindu of the Bráhman caste, a minor, is (1883–84) under the guardianship of the Political Agent of Kolhápur, and has attended the Rájárám College for chiefs at Kolhápur. The family follow the rule of primogeniture. The chief maintains a retinue of 61 followers. There are four schools, with a total of 255 pupils. The capital of the State is Malkápur. Vishalgarh town is situated in lat. 16° 54′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 47′ E.

Visnagar (*Visalnagar*).—Chief town of the Visnagar Sub-division of the State of Baroda, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 19,602, namely, males 9615, and females 9987. Visnagar was founded, according to one account, by Visal Deo, a Chauhán Rájput, in 1046; and according to another, by a prince of the same name, of the Wághela clan, between 1243 and 1261. This town was originally the seat of one of the six classes of Nagar Bráhmans, and gives its name to a sub-division known as Visnagar Bráhmans; many of these are now followers of Swámi Náráyán, the religious reformer whom Bishop Heber met in Gujarát in 1825.

Vissanapet.—*Zamíndárí táluk* of Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Area, 324 square miles. Population (1881) 54,401, namely, males 27,733, and females 26,668; occupying 10,099 houses in 88 villages. Hindus number 52,775; Muhammadans, 1488; and Christians, 138. The annual rental of the Vissanapet *zamíndárí* is £4096; the *peshkash* or fixed revenue is £489.

Vissanapet.—Village in Kistna District, Madras Presidency, and the chief town of Vissanapet *zamíndárí*; situated about 32 miles north of Bezwáda. Population (1881) 1568, namely, Hindus 1512, and Muhammadans 56; occupying 297 houses.

Viswagangá.—River of Berar, having its source near Buldána in Buldána District, in lat. 20° 34′ N., and long. 76° 16′ E. It flows

parallel to the NALGANGA, and falls into the Púrna. The Viswagangá is not a perennial stream, but during the rains flows past Jaipur, Badnera, and Chandpur.

Vita.—Town and municipality in Sátára District, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Khánápur Sub-division; situated in lat. 17° 17′ N., and long. 74° 34′ E., 48 miles south-east of Sátára town. Population (1881) 4477. Municipal income (1883–84), £78; incidence of taxation, 3¾d. per head. Sub-judge's court, post-office, and school.

Vithalgarh.—Petty State in the Jhálawár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 5 villages, with 1 tribute-payer. Area, 23 square miles. Population (1881) 1999. The revenue is estimated at £1500. No tribute is payable.

Vittár.—River in Tanjore District, Madras Presidency, branching from the Vennár, an affluent of the Káveri, in lat. 10° 49′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 7′ E., about 6 miles north-west of Tanjore city, and falling into the sea in lat. 10° 49′ 45″ N., and long. 79° 54′ 45″ E., near the port of Nágar.

Vizagapatam (*Visákha-patnam*).—British District in the Presidency of Madras, lying between 17° 14′ 30″ and 18° 58′ N. lat., and between 82° 19′ and 83° 59′ E. long. Area (including the Jaipur and Vizianagram *zamíndáris*, which are also under British administration), about 17,380 square miles. Population (1881) 2,485,141 souls. In size and population, Vizagapatam ranks first among the Districts of the Madras Presidency. Vizagapatam is bounded on the north by the District of Ganjám and the Central Provinces; on the east by Ganjám and the Bay of Bengal; on the south by the Bay of Bengal and Godávari District; and on the west by the Central Provinces. It consists of 14 *zamíndáris*, 37 proprietary estates, and 3 Government *táluks*, namely, Golconda, Sarvassiddhi, and Pálkonda. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of VIZAGAPATAM.

Physical Aspects.—Vizagapatam forms a portion of the north maritime Province of the Madras Presidency, historically known as the Northern Circars. It is a picturesque and hilly country, but, throughout the greater part, unhealthy. A chain of the Eastern Ghâts runs through the District in an oblique direction from north-east to south-west, dividing it into two unequal portions, the larger being mountainous and the smaller flat. The higher peaks of this range attain an elevation of more than 5000 feet above the level of the sea. The slopes of the mountains on both sides are clothed with luxuriant vegetation, amid which rise many tall forest trees; while the graceful bamboo grows profusely in the valleys. This range forms the watershed of the country. The drainage on the east is carried by numerous streams direct to the Bay of Bengal; while the

drainage to the west flows into the Godávari (Godavery), either through the Indravati or through the Sabari and Siller rivers. Along the north of the Jaipur (Jeypore) country another watershed extends, which separates the drainage between the Mahánadi and the Godávari, the sources of several tributaries of the former, particularly the Tel, its chief tributary, being found here. To the west of the Eastern Ghâts is situated the greater portion of the extensive *zamíndárí* of Jaipur, which is for the most part very hilly and jungly, the fertile vale through which the Indravati flows being an exception to the character of the remainder. The north and north-west of the District, which is chiefly inhabited by Kandhs and Sauras, is also mountainous. In the extreme north, a remarkable mass of hills, called the Nimgíris, rises to a height of 4972 feet above sea-level; and these hills are separated by valleys of not more than 1200 feet from the neighbouring ranges of Ghâts. The drainage from the Nimgíris flows in a south-east direction to the sea, forming the rivers at Chicacole and Kalingapatam.

The plain along the Bay of Bengal to the south-east of the Ghâts is exceedingly rich and fertile. It is described as a vast sheet of cultivation, green with rice-fields and gardens of sugar-cane and tobacco. The flourishing export trade at Bimlipatam and at Kalingapatam, in the neighbouring District of Ganjám, has probably caused the cultivated area to be doubled in the course of the last twenty or thirty years. The plain near the sea-coast is diversified with hills; and an endeavour has been made, but with only limited success, to convert one or other of those which are most accessible from Vizagapatam into a sanitarium. The line of coast, and the entrance to the harbour of Vizagapatam round the Dolphin's Nose, are very picturesque.

The Government forests lie in the Pálkonda hills to the north, in the Golconda hills to the south-west, and in the coast *táluk* of Sarvasiddhi. The rest of the country is *zamíndárí* land, and the largest of the estates, Jaipur, has very considerable areas of forest. The Pálkonda forests were examined in 1884. They contain large areas of young forest, with an abundance of *konda tangaidu* (Xylia dolabriformis), *billu* (Chloroxylon Swietenia), and other good trees along the slopes to the south-west overlooking the Pálkonda *táluk*; while within are good patches of *gúgal* (Shorea robusta). Noticeable among the latter are those at Voni and Latchimpuram, which have been for some time carefully protected. It is probable that before long these forests will yield considerable material for the supply of the Vizianagram Sub-division and the Chicacole *táluk* of Ganjám. The forests of the Golconda *táluk* lie partly in the plains, but chiefly in the hills of the main range of the Eastern Ghâts, which here rise to 4500 feet in height. The chief trees are the *konda tangaidu* and the *nellamadu*

(Terminalia tomentosa). Bamboos are also exported, as well as myrabolams, the produce of the *karaka* (Terminalia Chebula). These forests will shortly be laid out in reserves. In the Sarvassiddhi *táluk* there is an extensive area of waste lands, which will now be utilized partly as 'reserved forest,' partly as 'fuel and fodder reserves.' This land consists chiefly of stony hills, which stretch down to the sea. In the Párvatípur *táluk* there are still some patches of *sál* forest; but they are being denuded, and the hills along the sea-coast about Bimlipatam and Vizagapatam, chiefly in the Vizianagram *zamíndárí*, would repay protection. A forest division has lately been constituted.

History.—The present District of Vizagapatam formed, in the early days of Hindu history, a portion of the ancient kingdom of Kalinga. It was subsequently conquered by the eastern branch of the Chálukya dynasty, which originally settled at Vengi, near Ellore, and afterwards transferred its capital to Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry). As a general rule, it possesses the same history as the whole maritime tract from Ganjám to the Godávari, sometimes belonging to the Gajapati Rájás of Orissa, and sometimes to the rulers of Telingána. In later times, Muhammad II., of the Bahmaní dynasty in the Deccan, assisted a claimant to gain the throne of Orissa, and received from him in return the Provinces of Kandhapalli and Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry). During the confusion consequent on the overthrow of the Bahmaní dynasty, the sovereign of Orissa recovered those Provinces; but Ibráhím, of the Kutabsháhí line, not only retook them, but also annexed to his dominions the whole country as far north as Chicacole. On the subjugation of Golconda by Aurangzeb in 1687, these northern Provinces nominally formed part of his magnificent Empire; but his sovereignty over them was merely a military occupation. They were farmed by *zamíndárs*, or governed by military chiefs. Vizagapatam was placed more directly under the Emperor's viceroy, stationed at Chicacole.

On the dissolution of the Mughal Empire, the Northern Circars passed into the possession of the Nizám of Haidarábád, who established a better revenue and judicial system than had existed hitherto, the principal Muhammadan officials being stationed at Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) and Chicacole. During the disputed succession which ensued on the death of the first Nizám, the French rendered such essential services in placing Salábat Jang on the throne, that he presented to them the four *Sarkárs* (Circars) of Mustáfanagar, Ellore, Rájámahendri, and Chicacole, as they were then called. M. Bussy, the greatest military genius whom the French ever possessed in India, received the *farmáns* for them in 1753. After a time, M. Bussy himself assumed the government; and during one of his campaigns the memorable siege of BOBBILI occurred, which made such a deep impression on the Hindus, that it has been commemorated in ballads

which are sung to this day. Gajapati Viziaráma Ráz, Rájá of Vizianagram, was at that time the most powerful Hindu noble in the Circar of Chicacole; and M. Bussy had, as a return for his services, leased that Circar and Rájámahendri to him on very favourable terms. Ránga Ráo, the Rájá of Bobbili, an estate about 140 miles north of Vizagapatam, had an hereditary feud with the Rájá of Vizianagram. The latter used all his influence to persuade Bussy to ruin the Rájá of Bobbili. At length a suitable occasion presented itself. A French detachment was attacked by some troops of Ránga Ráo; and a French army, accompanied by a large contingent from Vizianagram, proceeded to besiege the hill-fort of Bobbili. A terrible scene ensued. Ránga Ráo and his followers were resolved not to yield; and when they perceived that resistance was vain, they put to death all the women and children in the fort, and then died fighting sword in hand, refusing every offer of quarter. An infant son of Ránga Ráo was alone rescued from this scene of slaughter. Four of his retainers, seeing their chief fall, made a vow to avenge his death. Having secreted themselves in the jungle for some time, they penetrated to Viziaráma Ráz's tent by night, and assassinated him.

After settling the government of Chicacole, Bussy returned to Vizagapatam, where he took the English factory which had been established in the middle of the 17th century. In 1689, a rupture occurred between the East India Company and the Mughal Emperor owing to disputes in Bengal, and the latter ordered the possessions of the Company at Vizagapatam to be attacked. The warehouses were seized, and all the English residents put to death. In the following year, a fresh *farmán* was issued, permitting the Company to have settlements at Vizagapatam and other places on the coast. These factories had continued in the Company's possession up to the time when the French took them. The French did not keep them long. In 1759, Colonel Forde was authorized by Clive to proceed from Bengal to the Northern Circars, and co-operate with the Rájá of Vizianagram, who had become dissatisfied with the alliance which his father had entered into with the French, and had invited the assistance of the English to wrest the country from them. Colonel Forde landed at Vizagapatam on the 20th October 1759. After a brief but brilliant campaign, in which he gained a decisive victory over the French in Godávari District, and took from them the fort at Masulipatam, he received from the Nizám a grant bestowing certain territory around Masulipatam on the East India Company, and prohibiting any future settlement of the French in the Northern Circars. In 1765, Lord Clive obtained an imperial *farmán* granting the Northern Circars to the English; and in 1768, a treaty was entered into with the Nizám, who then finally ceded them. Vizagapatam, together with the rest

of the Province, thus passed into the possession of the East India Company.

For the remainder of the century, the history of the District is principally connected with the fortunes of the Vizianagram family, who were all-powerful. The intrigues of Sítaráma Ráz, the Rájá's brother, and of the Diwán Jagannáth Ráz, in 1781, led to the dismissal of Sir Thomas Rumbold, then Governor of Madras, by the Court of Directors. In 1784, the Committee of Circuit, who had been appointed by Government to make a careful inquiry into the condition and resources of the Northern Circars, sent in their Report on the Kásimkota division of the Chicacole Circar. That portion of it which is now included in Vizagapatam District was divided into—(1) Havíli lands, which consisted of the lands immediately under Government; (2) the Vizagapatam farms, or 33 petty villages in the vicinity of the town; and (3) the Vizianagram *zamíndárí*, including the tributary estates of Andhra, Golconda, Jaipur (Jeypore), and Pálkonda. No action was taken on this Report. The administration of affairs remained in the hands of the Chief and Council at Vizagapatam; but in 1794, the Provincial Councils were abolished, and the whole of the Northern Circars was divided into Collectorates, the present District of Vizagapatam being apportioned between three.

Bitter disputes continued between the Rájá of Vizianagram and his brother Sítaráma Ráz, who was at last summoned by the authorities to Madras. The *zamíndárí* had, moreover, fallen into heavy arrears of revenue, owing to the incompetence of the Rájá's management; and it was found necessary to proceed to the severe measure of sequestration. A detachment of European artillery and sepoys was sent to Vizagapatam to enforce this measure, and took possession of the Rájá's fort at Vizianagram. The realization of the revenue was not the only reason for this step. Political reasons also influenced the Government, as the Rájá's military force was larger than was considered advisable, and he had obtained too great a preponderance of power over the other *zamíndárs* in the District. The Rájá naturally resented what he considered unjust treatment, and was vigorously upheld in his opposition to Government by his supporters. He took up his quarters at Padmanábham, a village half-way between Vizianagram and Bimlipatam, where he was attacked by the military force under Lieutenant-Colonel Prendergast. He himself was slain, with several of his devoted followers, who had vowed not to desert him. This sharp but decisive action took place on 10th July 1794. After some little difficulty, a lease for his father's estate was given to Náráyana Bába, the late Rájá's youthful son. The extent of the *zamíndárí* was considerably curtailed, arrangements for their territories being made direct by Government with the hill chiefs, and part of the estate was incorporated with the

Government land. The principal chief thus directly treated with by the Government was the *zamíndár* of Jaipur (Jeypore); and the various estates have, with few exceptions, remained in the possession of the same families to the present time.

In 1802, the Permanent Settlement, which had found so much favour in Bengal, was introduced into the Northern Circars. At that time there were 16 ancient *zamínddrís* in the District, the permanent assessment on which amounted to £80,258. As in other Districts of Madras, the Government land was also brought under the *zamíndárí* system; and for this purpose it was parcelled out into convenient estates, which were put up to public sale. Twenty-six estates were thus created; and these, together with the 16 ancient *zamínddrís*, formed the new Collectorate of Vizagapatam. The new system was very unpopular with the *zamíndárs*, who for many years after its introduction were in a chronic state of discontent and disaffection. There were continual petty disturbances. Expeditions were frequently sent into the hills against the more refractory chiefs, and not always with success, for the climate was very malarious, and the forts difficult of access. At last, towards the close of the year 1832, the disturbances in this District and in Ganjám became so serious, that the Government were compelled to order a large military force to take the field for the purpose of suppressing them. Mr. George Russell was appointed Special Commissioner, to ascertain the causes which had led to these insurrectionary outbreaks, to devise measures for their suppression, and to recommend the best policy for preventing their occurrence in future. Power was granted him to proclaim martial law in the disturbed Districts. Mr. Russell discovered that the ostensible instigators of the disturbances in Vizagapatam were two individuals who had fomented the prevailing discontent. One was captured by the troops, and the other was compelled to flee from the District. There was also an insurrection at Pálkonda, which was promptly and vigorously suppressed.

At Mr. Russell's suggestion, a thorough change was made in the system under which the District was administered. It was considered unadvisable to maintain the ordinary Regulations in mountainous tracts, where the authorities possessed neither police nor power. Accordingly, it was determined to place the territories of the tributary chiefs exclusively under the Collector of the District, in whom the entire administration of civil and criminal justice was vested. In 1839, an Act was passed to this effect. Seven-eighths of the District, or all but the old Havíli land, was placed under the new system. The portion not included in the Agency was subordinated in judicial matters to the civil and sessions judge of Chicacole. This arrangement lasted until 1863, when the Vizianagram and Bobbili *zamínddrís* and Pálkonda were exempted from the jurisdiction of the Agency, which now comprises

only the hill tracts. Disturbances have been comparatively rare since these changes were effected. From 1845 to 1848, the hill chiefs in Golconda gave a good deal of trouble to the troops. The estate had been attached owing the murder of the Ráni, who had been placed in authority by Government. In 1857–58 there was another disturbance in Golconda, which was speedily put down. In 1849–50, and again in 1855–56, disturbances broke out in Jaipur. There had been frequent disputes between the Rájá and his son, which required the interference of the Governor's Agent; and he considered it advisable to take under his charge the four *táluks* belonging to Jaipur on the eastern side of the Ghâts, in order to save the *zamíndárí* from falling into utter ruin. These *táluks* were restored to the present Rájá's control, on his succeeding to the estate on his father's death in 1860. It was then determined to station an Assistant at Jaipur, together with an Assistant Superintendent of Police; and to bring the whole territory under the magisterial and judicial authority of the Agent, and under the regular administration of the police. This change has been effected quietly, and with no greater degree of passive resistance than could reasonably have been expected. In 1879–80, the rebellion which had broken out in the RAMPA country, in Godávari District, spread into the Gudem hill tracts, and thence into Jaipur. It was finally suppressed towards the close of 1880.

Recent History of the Vizianagram Estate.—As the history of the District was for the greater part of a century co-extensive with that of the *zamíndárí* of Vizianagram, it is advisable to mention here the later fortunes of that estate, though since the complete establishment of the authority of the English Government it has not exercised the influence over the whole District that it formerly did. The estate was placed in charge of the English authorities in 1817, a very heavy debt having been incurred in unliquidated balances; but it was restored to the Rájá at the end of five years clear of all incumbrances. In 1827, the Rájá proceeded to Benares, leaving his estate again under charge of the Government; and during the minority of his son, and for a few years after he had come of age (from 1848 to 1852), it was under the care of Mr. Crozier, who managed its affairs so successfully that he restored it to the Rájá, on his coming of age, with a surplus. The late *zamíndár*, though frequently an absentee landlord, administered the estate with kindness towards his tenants, and with profit to himself. He also took a prominent part in public affairs, and was rewarded with the star of a K.C.S.I., the title of Mahárájá, the prefix of His Highness, and a salute of 13 guns. The present Mahárájá, Pusapati Ananda Gajapati Ráz, succeeded to the estate in 1879 on the death of his father, and bids fair to prove himself a worthy son. In 1881, the personal title of Mahárájá was conferred upon him, and his claim to

the local salute of 13 guns fully recognised. He was appointed a member of the Madras Legislative Council in March 1884.

Population.—The Census of 1881 returned the population of Vizagapatam District, exclusive of the Agency Tracts, at 1,790,468. The Agency Tracts, principally inhabited by aboriginal and uncivilised races, were treated in the matter of the Census in a different manner to the remainder of the District. The Census taken here was not synchronous, but was distributed over a period of three or four months. The total number thus ascertained was 694,673, which, added to that of the Regulation District, brings up the total population to 2,485,141, occupying 523,466 houses in 10 towns and 8752 villages. Number of unoccupied houses, 26,859. Average number of persons per village or town, 284; persons per occupied house, 4·7; persons per square mile, 143; villages or towns per square mile, 0·504; occupied houses per square mile, 30·1. Omitting the Agency Tracts, the population was 1,790,468, occupying 370,785 houses in 10 towns and 2657 villages; and the area, 3477 square miles. It will be seen that the District proper is very densely populated. The average is 515 persons per square mile, or considerably more than the average (249) for the Presidency. The thinnest population in the District, that of Chípurupalle *táluk* (260), is above the average of other Districts, while in four *táluks*, Salúr (1257), Srungavarupukota (1241), Párvatípur (1224), and Pálkonda (1214), the density rises above 1200 per square mile, and is above that observed anywhere else in the Presidency, except in Madras city and in the 'Garden of the Káveri.' The last-mentioned tract, 422 square miles in area, has a population of 1229 per square mile. The averages for the District proper were — villages or towns per square mile, 0·77; persons per village or town, 671; occupied houses per square mile, 107; and persons per occupied house, 4·8.

Classified according to sex, the population of the entire District consisted of—males 1,254,850, and females 1,230,291. The proportion of the sexes in the plains is very nearly equal, namely, 501 males to 499 females in every 1000. In the Agency Tracts there appear 515 males to 485 females. This, it is stated, is due to defective enumeration. Though there has been a general improvement in this respect, yet Vizagapatam was one of the most backward Districts of the Presidency in its return of females.

Classified according to age, there were in the plains—under 15 years, boys 370,895, and girls 345,681; total children, 716,576, or 40·1 per cent. of the population of the plains: above 15 years, males 525,995, and females 547,430; total adults, 1,073,425, or 59·9 per cent.; and 467 persons did not give their age—males 226, and females 241. In the Agency Tracts, the age of 691,780 persons was not given, but they were classified as—juveniles 267,192, namely, males 143,826, and females

123,366; and adults 425,588, namely, males 212,920, and females 212,668; of the remainder there were—under 15 years, boys 342, and girls 320; total children, 662: above 15 years, males 646, and females 585; total adults, 1231.

The religious division shows the following results:—Hindus, 2,460,474, or 99·01 per cent. of the total population; Muhammadans, 20,403, or 0·82 per cent.; Christians, 3410, or 0·14 per cent.; Buddhists, 675; Jains, 20; and 'others,' 159. The Hindus have gained 15 per cent. since 1871; the Christians, 56 per cent.; while the Muhammadans have lost 3 per cent. The majority of the Hindus, in the proportion of about 4 to 1, belong to the Vishnuite as opposed to the Sivaite sect. The Bráhmans are mostly Sivaites, as also are the potters and artisans. The Muhammadans are for the most part Sunnís; and of the Christians 61·3 per cent. are Roman Catholics.

Distributed according to caste, the Hindus include—Vellálars (agriculturists), 891,498; Pariahs (out-castes proper), 241,117; Idaiyars (shepherds), 122,198; Kaikalars (weavers), 88,490; Kammálars (artisans), 73,358; Shanans (toddy-drawers), 70,341; Bráhmans (priestly caste), 57,564; Vannáns (washermen), 57,437; Sátánis (mixed and depressed caste), 34,900; Shetties (traders), 33,400; Ambattans (barbers), 29,255; Kshattriyas (warrior caste), 21,423; Shembadavans (fishermen), 16,596; Kanakkans (writers), 15,858; Kushavans (potters), 15,055; Vanniyan (labourers and cultivators), 14,489; other out-castes and castes that follow no specified occupation, 677,495.

The Muhammadan population consists of—Shaikhs, 1521; Sayyids, 204; Patháns, 190; Mughals, 75; and 'others,' 18,413. According to sect, Sunnís number 12,945; Shiás, 288; Wahábís, 9; Faráizis, 3; and 'others,' 7158. The Muhammadans are, as a rule, in indigent circumstances; but 7·1 per cent. of the Muhammadan male population are able to read and write, against 2·1 per cent. of the male Hindus.

The Christians include 168 Europeans and Americans, and 396 Eurasians; of the remainder, 982 represent native converts (453 of them Roman Catholics); and of 1864 the nationality was not stated.

More than half the population live by the soil, and of these upwards of two-thirds are members of the cultivating castes. Nearly 90,000 are weavers. Very few are employed in learned professions, and, of course, the greater number of these are Bráhmans. The artisans who work in metals, etc., form a very exclusive guild, into which outsiders cannot obtain admission. Wild tribes, mostly of Dravidian origin, are very numerous in Vizagapatam. They chiefly inhabit the hill country of Jaipur and the uplands which stretch through the District into Ganjám. Several castes of Aryans from Orissa and the plains of the Northern Circars have settled in this tract, among whom are many Uriyá Bráhmans. The *zamíndárs* claim to be of the Kshattriya caste, and their

retainers are chiefly Paiks (Páyaks) or hereditary fighting men, who have now in many instances settled down into industrious cultivators.

The aboriginal tribes are very numerous, consisting chiefly of Kandhs, Gonds, Gadabás, and Kois. Where they have come into contact with Hindus, the cultivating Kandhs call themselves Prajas (or *ráyats*). They are thrifty, hard-working agriculturists, undisturbed by the intestine broils which agitate the more turbulent Kandhs of the north. They entertain an unconquerable love for their native soil, and regard themselves, and are regarded by the *zamíndárs*, as the owners of it. This same race is found in the extreme north of the District as Gonds; farther south as Batias, Kandha Doras, Kandha Kápus (Telugu names signifying 'Lords of the Hills,' and *ráyats*), Matiyás, and Kois. Their dialects are similar, and indicate an identity of origin. The tribes who inhabit the mountainous parts of the Jaipur country are more manly and civilised than the others, and when treated with respect soon throw off their wildness, and become hard-working members of society. The Kandhs were formerly addicted to the barbarous rite of *Meriah*, or offering human sacrifice, which the English Government has suppressed. Another primitive tribe, called the Sauras, inhabit the hills and slopes behind Pálkonda and to the east of Gunapur.

There is a Protestant mission at the town of Vizagapatam, in connection with the London Missionary Society. In 1883, there were about 223 native converts there, and at the out-stations of Vizianagram and Chittivalasa. This mission maintains a high school for boys, a boarding-school for girls, and a day-school for high-caste girls. There is also a Roman Catholic mission, which maintains 2 orphanages, a boys' school, and 3 girls' schools in the convent, and 1 in the fort. The American Baptist mission has established itself at Bimlipatam and Bobbili.

The principal towns in the District are—VIZAGAPATAM CITY, population (1881) 30,291; VIZIANAGRAM, 22,577; BOBBILI, 14,943; ANAKAPALLI, 13,341; SALUR, 11,586; PARVATIPUR, 9933; PALKONDA, 9531; BIMLIPATAM, 8582; KASIMKOTA, 7078; and SRUNGAVARAPUKOTA, 5329. The only municipalities are Vizagapatam city, Vizianagram, Bobbili, and Anakápelle, which had in 1883–84 an aggregate municipal income from taxation of £6320; the incidence of taxation varied from 1s. 0⅜d. per head in Anákapelle to 2s. 3¾d. in Vizagapatam city.

Of the 10 towns and 8752 villages in Vizagapatam District in 1881, 5911 contained less than 200 inhabitants; 1587 between two and five hundred; 743 between five hundred and one thousand; 388 between one and two thousand; 85 between two and three thousand; 32 between three and five thousand; 11 between five and ten thousand; 3 between ten and fifteen thousand; and 2 between twenty and fifty thousand.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 divided the male population into six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 25,028; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 16,713; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 24,043; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 657,338; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 136,159; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 395,569. About 70 per cent. of the population were returned as workers, on whom the remaining 30 per cent. depended. This was the highest return of labour in the whole of Madras Presidency; it was especially noticeable in the large number engaged in agriculture. Of males 76·76 per cent., and of females 63·29, were workers.

Agriculture.—In 1881, agriculture supported 1,121,800 persons, or 45 per cent. of the population. The area cultivated in that year was —of Government *ráyatwári* lands, 177 square miles; of *inám* or grants held rent-free, or at a low quit-rent, 98 square miles; of *zamíndári* lands paying a *peshkash* or fixed revenue, 1215 square miles. The amount of rent, including local cesses paid by cultivators, amounted, in that year, to £400,393; the average rent, including local cesses, was 3s. 10½d. per acre of cultivated land. According to the returns of 1883–84, Government *ráyatwári* lands amounted to 187,501 acres; and *inám* lands to 42,205 acres. Of the Government *ráyatwári* lands, 107,185 acres were cultivated (30,869 acres of which yielded two crops); of the *inám* lands, 30,285 acres were cultivated (4246 acres of which yielded two crops). Total cultivated area (exclusive of *zamíndári* lands), 137,470 acres, 35,115 acres of which yielded two crops. Of this amount 57,071 acres were irrigated, 12,421 acres of which yielded two crops. The uncultivated but cultivable area was returned at 36,558 acres. Total area assessed, 158,479 acres; total assessment, £43,940.

The maritime plain and some of the valleys in the uplands are very fertile. The principal 'wet' crops are rice and sugar-cane; the chief 'dry' crops, indigo, cotton, *ragí*, *júm*, *korra*, and gingelly oil-seed. An attempt was made by Messrs. Arbuthnot & Co., who have a lease of the *táluks* of Pálkonda and Honzaram, to improve the cultivation of sugar-cane, and to introduce cotton, but without success. The native method of cultivating the cane was found better adapted to the country; and cotton would not grow, the climate being too damp for it. The cultivation of indigo, however, has proved a great success. In 1883–84, 12,625 acres were cultivated with cotton, 14,167 with indigo, and 11,126 with sugar-cane throughout the District, inclusive of *zamíndári* lands. Rice is the staple product of the country.

In 1883–84, in the Government *ráyatwári* and *inám* lands the area

under the principal crops was as follows:—Cereals and millets, 116,781 acres; pulses, 15,038 acres; garden produce, 2182 acres; drugs and narcotics, 2404 acres; condiments and spices, 661 acres; sugar, 3755 acres; oil-seeds, 18,983 acres; dyes, 7611 acres; and fibres, 5170 acres. In the same year the farm stock consisted of — buffaloes, 22,725; bullocks and cows, 48,496; donkeys, 470; horses and ponies, 119; sheep, 16,074; goats, 26,090; pigs, 4131; and elephants, 2: ploughs, 19,715; carts, 4261; and boats, 79.

The chief sources of irrigation in the Government *táluks* are the Varáhanadi, Sháradanadi, and Nagávali rivers, and two large natural lakes called the Komoravolu and Kondakirla Avas. On the Varáhanadi there are 3 anicuts or dams belonging to Government, and 4 belonging to the proprietors through whose lands the river flows. The Gubbada anicut, near Narsapatnam, the Principal Assistant's head-quarters, is of great service in supplying the great tank there, and in ensuring water for the cattle all the year round, as well as in furnishing irrigation to the crops. Irrigation in the southern part of the Government *táluks* is dependent on the Sháradanadi, across which 6 anicuts have been constructed. There are, besides, 560 tanks in the two *táluks* of Sarvassiddhi and Golconda. The Nagávali irrigates the Pálkonda *táluk*, which is leased to Messrs. Arbuthnot & Co. The *zamíndári* tracts are supplied by mountain streams and tanks.

Prices of grain have risen very considerably during the last few years. The rate of wages has also risen, but not in the same proportion. In 1883–84, the price of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. was—rice, 4s. 9⅝d.; *ragi* (Eleusine corocana), 2s. 7¼d.; *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare), 2s. 6⅝d.; *kambu* (Pennisetum typhoideum), 2s. 5¾d.; wheat, 6s. 1⅜d.; pulses varied from 1s. 8⅜d. to 4s. 2⅛d., according to the species or kind; turmeric, 9s. 3⅜d.; salt, 5s. 4½d.; sugar, £1, 2s. 7¼d.; linseed, 6s. 0¾d.; gingelly, 7s. 1¼d.; tobacco, 17s. 8½d.; jute, 6s. 10½d.; cotton, £1, 18s. 7d.; indigo, £13, 2s. 8⅝d.; and wax, £3, 17s. 2½d. The wages per day of skilled labour were—in towns 8⅛d., and in villages 7⅛d.; of unskilled labour, in towns 2⅜d., and in villages 2d.; the hire per day of a draught bullock was 8½d.; of donkeys per score, 5s. 6d.; of a pony, 9d.; of a boat in towns £1, os. 3d., and in villages 5s. 10½d.; of a cart, 3¾d.

Manufactures and Trade.—The only manufactures in the District worthy of notice are cotton cloth and the beautiful fancy wares of Vizagapatam town. A special cloth called *panjam* is manufactured at the villages of Anakápalle, Paikaroupeta, Nakkapilli, and Tuni, and other minor villages adjacent to them; and a profitable trade in this commodity is carried on. The term *panjam* means 120 threads; and the cloth is denominated 10, 12, 14, up to 40 *panjam*, according to the number of times 120 threads are contained in the warp. The brown *panjam*, intended for exportation to foreign countries, is of a

heavier texture, and is usually dyed with indigo at Madras before being exported. Cloth woven at Vizagapatam and Chicacole, and exported from this District, is in much request throughout Southern India. Table-cloths, towels, and *dungaris* are also manufactured in the District. The town of Vizagapatam is celebrated for ornamental articles made of ivory, buffalo-horn, porcupine quills, and silver. Work-boxes, chess-boards, card-cases, and many varieties of articles of *vertu* for the drawing-room are made out of these materials, and are reckoned among the purest of the native manufactures in India.

The average annual value of the sea-borne trade of the District for the five years ending 1883–84 was—imports, £306,831; and exports, £482,536. In 1883–84, the value was—imports, £302,635; and exports, £602,919. The exports consist chiefly of piece-goods, seeds, hides, horns, sugar; the imports of stores from Madras, raw cotton, twist, and thread, metals, saltpetre, and gunnies from Calcutta, and teak from Maulmain. The chief articles brought from the hills into the low country are iron from Jaipur, horns for ornamental work, bees-wax, honey, and other jungle products.

Recently, much has been done in the matter of roads by Local Boards. The only imperial road is the Great Northern Trunk line from Madras to Calcutta, which traverses the whole length of the District. Total length of roads in 1883–84, 810 miles. All the important places in the plains or low country are now connected by first or second class roads; some progress has also been made towards the construction of village roads. The Jaipur country has likewise received attention. The new Pottinghi Ghát road from the foot of the Ghâts to Karapet, the head-quarters of the Special Assistant Agent, has now (1884) been completed and opened to wheeled traffic. The cost of roads in the country above the Ghâts has been met from Provincial Funds, supplemented by an annual contribution of £400 from the Mahárájá of Jaipur.

Administration.—The total revenue of the District in 1883–84 was £271,611. The chief sources of revenue are land, excise, opium, salt, customs, stamps, and assessed taxes. The land revenue amounted to £140,999, of which nearly £100,000 was paid by the *zamíndárs* as *peshkash* or permanent assessment, the Mahárájá of Vizianagram alone contributing one-half of this amount. In good years, the *ráyatwári táluks* yield a land revenue of about £20,000.

There are both regular and extraordinary tribunals in Vizagapatam. In 1837, after the disturbances in the hill country, the *zamíndári* estates in that part of the District were exempted from the jurisdiction of the ordinary courts, and placed exclusively under the Collector, in whom was vested the entire administration of civil and criminal justice, with the title of Agent to the Governor of Fort St. George. The portion

of the District not included in the Agency was subordinated in judicial matters to the Civil and Sessions Judge of Chicacole, with a subordinate court at Vizagapatam, and a District *munsif* at Ráyávaram. This arrangement lasted until 1863, when the jurisdiction of the various courts was readjusted, the circumstances of this District and Ganjám having changed, and the tranquillity of both having been assured. A new Civil and Sessions Court was established at Vizagapatam; and the Vizianagram and Bobbili *zamíndáris*, with Pálkonda, were placed under its jurisdiction. On 1st January 1865, a further contraction of the limits of the Agency was effected, in consideration of the heavy additional duties devolving on the Collector by the direct charge of the large *zamíndárí* of Jaipur, which had been assumed just two years before. The Agency at present consists of Jaipur, with those portions of the *zamíndáris* of Mádugula, Pánchipenta, Kurupám, and Merangi which lie within the hills, and the hill *mutas* of Pálkonda and Golconda, and the hill *zamíndárí* of Kásipur. Six *munsif's* Courts are now subordinate to the District Court. These are stationed at Yellamanchili, Vizagapatam, Bimlipatam, Vizianagram, Rájam, and Párvatípur. The criminal work both of the Sessions Court and of the Agency is very heavy. Among the lawless and wild population of the hills, murder is common; and this is the principal serious crime in the District.

Vizagapatam is divided into two Districts for police purposes—Vizagapatam and Jaipur. The entire police force consists of 1627 constables, 33 inspectors, and 5 European officers, showing, on an average, 1 policeman to every 1492 inhabitants and to every 10·4 square miles of area. The entire cost of the force averages less than 2¼d. per head of the population. In 1862, the regular police system was introduced into Jaipur. Much tact and circumspection were required at first, as the Rájá was naturally jealous of the change, and the people were suspicious; but it has now taken firm root in that region. A large proportion of low-country men were employed in the first instance; but natives of the hills have since been engaged in greater numbers, the climate having proved most prejudicial to the health of strangers. The only occasions on which the police have been brought into collision with the people have been the petty insurrections in the Saura country in August 1864 and December 1865. The jail is situated in a healthy site outside the town of Vizagapatam. It is intended to hold 172 prisoners, those who are condemned to sentences for long terms being sent to the central jail at Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry). Hillmen are sent to the new prison at Párvatípur, which was built to hold 100 men. The mortality in this class when they were confined in a jail near the coast had been most deplorable.

In the matter of education, Vizagapatam has always been backward, but has made a great advance of late years in this respect. There

were, in 1876, 321 schools in the District, with 8424 pupils, or 3·9 pupils to every thousand of the population. In 1883–84, there were 828 schools, with 19,254 pupils, or 7·7 pupils to every thousand of the population. Of these, 1 is a first-class college at Vizianagram, teaching up to the B.A. standard, which is entirely maintained by the Mahárájá of Vizianagram; 1 a second-class college at Vizagapatam teaching up to the F.A. standard, supported partly by Government and partly by local contributions; 3 high schools, 11 middle schools, and 812 elementary schools. There are also 3 normal schools — one at Vizagapatam, one at Pálkonda, and the third at Yellamanchili—for training teachers for elementary schools. Nine schools for the education of girls also exist at Vizianagram, Vizagapatam, Bimlipatam, Anakapalli, and Narsapatam. A night-school for imparting elementary education to the labouring classes was recently started at Vizagapatam by a few young men, and is at present entirely supported by voluntary subscriptions, no fees being levied from the pupils. The Census of 1881 returned 13,816 males and 869 females as under instruction, besides 40,547 males and 3093 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

There are 4 municipalities in the District, namely, VIZAGAPATAM TOWN, BIMLIPATAM, VIZIANAGRAM, and ANAKAPALLI. Vizagapatam includes the suburb of WALTAIR, where the European inhabitants chiefly reside. It extends about 3 miles along the coast; and the climate is more salubrious than at Vizagapatam itself, near which there is a large marsh. A commodious municipal hall has been erected at Vizagapatam, a library, reading-room, and a native association being connected with it. There is also an excellent hospital and dispensary, which has received munificent support from the Mahárájá of Vizianagram. Adjoining the hospital is a poorhouse, etc.; further on a lunatic asylum, maintained by Government. The municipal income from taxation in 1883–84 was £1368. Bimlipatam, one of the most important commercial towns on the coast, has improved wonderfully in every way during the last few years. Several English and French firms are established there; and it is one of the ports at which, with Vizagapatam, the British India Steam Navigation Company's steamers touch on their way to and from Calcutta and Burma. The tonnage that entered the port increased from 10,701 tons in 1852–53 to 264,866 tons in 1883–84. The municipal receipts from taxation were £758 in 1883–84. Bimlipatam can boast of a hospital, a church, a schoolhouse, a municipal reading-room, and a town clock. A regiment of Native infantry is stationed at Vizianagram.

Medical Aspects.—From the conformation of the District it naturally follows that there are great varieties of climate. Along the coast, the air is soft and relaxing, the prevailing winds being south-easterly.

Land winds are very rarely experienced. A few miles inland, the climate becomes drier and hotter, like that of the more southern Districts. Above the Ghâts, the nights are generally cool, and in the cold weather even a fire is agreeable. The monsoon is very heavy, and the climate then malarious. The average annual rainfall for the sixteen years ending 1881 at Vizagapatam was 44·96 inches. The most prevalent disease is malarious fever. No portion of the District can be said to be entirely free from it, though it appears only in a mild form along the coast. In the hill tracts, however, it assumes the type known as jungle or bilious remittent fever, and its effects are often felt for years after the first attack. Change of climate is the only effectual remedy. Both cholera and small-pox are very prevalent. *Beri-beri* is endemic in the plains, especially where the country is damp and swampy. Leprosy and elephantiasis are common near the coast. But, on the whole, Vizagapatam is a favourite District, being easily accessible by sea, and generally favourable to the European constitution. [For further information regarding Vizagapatam District, see *Manual of the District of Vizagapatam in the Madras Presidency*, compiled and edited by Mr. D. F. Carmichael, C.S. (reprinted at the Asylum Press, Madras, 1869). Also see the *Madras Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Madras Government from 1880 to 1884.]

Vizagapatam.—*Zamíndárí táluk* or Sub-division of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Area, 142 square miles. Population (1881) 85,437, namely, males 42,951, and females 42,486; occupying 1753 houses, in 1 town and 74 villages. Hindus number 79,214; Muhammadans, 4742; Christians, 1440; and 'others,' 41.

Vizagapatam (*Visákha-patnam*, 'City of Visákha,' *i.e.* Kárttikeya or Subhramanya, the Hindu Mars).—Chief town of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 41′ 50″ N., long. 83° 20′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 30,291, namely, males 14,804, and females 15,487; occupying 6468 houses. Hindus number 26,264; Muhammadans, 2606; Christians, 1389; and 'others,' 32. A municipal and seaport town, head-quarters of a military division, with the courts of the District Judge, Magistrate, and Sub-Magistrate, jails, police, post and telegraph offices, churches, several missionary establishments, numerous schools and hospitals, 2 orphanages, lunatic asylum, and poorhouse. Residence of a Roman Catholic Bishop (Vicar-Apostolic).

The town of Vizagapatam is situated in a small bay, the south extremity of which is bounded by a promontory known as the Dolphin's Nose, and its northern extremity by the suburb of Waltair. To the west lies a large swamp, which is being reclaimed by the Roman Catholic missionaries of the town. The town or fort, as it is called, is separated from the Dolphin's Nose by a small river, which forms a

bar where it enters the sea, but is passable for vessels of 300 tons during spring-tides. Two ferries ply between the north and south sides of the river. Within the fort are the European infantry veteran company barracks, arsenal, sessions court-house, church, and other public buildings.

The municipality, founded in 1858, has done much for the town. Besides valuable sanitary reforms, street improvements, and lighting, it has built a handsome hall, library, and reading-room, and maintains 22 schools. The town has been fortunate in its neighbour the Mahárájá of Vizianagram, who has richly endowed its hospital, and otherwise assisted with his purse and goodwill. In 1883–84, the municipal income from taxation was £3505; incidence of taxation, 1s. 3¾d.

Vizagapatam is traditionally said to have been founded by an Andhra king, Kulottanga Chola, about the middle of the 14th century. With the rest of the Kalinga country, it fell to the Musalmán invader, and formed part of the Chicacole Circar when European adventurers first appeared on the scene. About the middle of the 17th century, the East India Company established its factory, which in 1689 was seized by the Mughals, and the factors murdered. But in the following year it was restored; and soon afterwards, its first fortification was erected. This withstood a short siege by the local Naib in 1710, and in 1726 its garrison consisted of 30 soldiers. Vizagapatam seems to have enjoyed exceptional immunity from the marauding bands that harassed the country during the 18th century. Neither Jafar Alí nor his Maráthá mercenaries (who sacked Bimlipatam, and harried the whole country-side) touched Vizagapatam; and save for a few months in 1757, when Bussy occupied the town, the Company had undisturbed possession. The Rájá of Vizianagram expelled the French, and restored it to Colonel Forde in 1758. With the exception of the Sepoy Mutiny in 1780, the town has seen no historical event for more than a century.

As a seaport, Vizagapatam is gradually increasing in business. The trade is chiefly carried by country vessels and the British India Steam Navigation Company's steamers. The number of ships that entered in 1883–84 was 210, with an aggregate burthen of 267,442 tons; value of imports, £73,928, and of exports, £221,814. The average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1883–84 was—imports, £66,551, and exports, £203,071; total, £269,622. The imports consist chiefly of piece-goods and metals from England. The principal exports are grain and sugar. The special industries of the town are the manufacture of native cloth, and ornamental articles made of buffalo and deer horn, ivory, porcupine quills, sandal-wood, and silver. Work-boxes, desks, chess-boards, and a variety of articles both useful and ornamental, are turned out with great taste.

Viziadrúg.—Port in Ratnágiri District, Bombay; situated 30 miles

south of Ratnágiri town, in lat. 16° 33′ 40″ N., and long. 73° 22′ 10″ E., 170 miles south of Bombay city. One of the best harbours on the western coast, being without any bar; it may be entered in all weathers, and even for large ships forms a safe south-west monsoon shelter. In the fine season, vessels may anchor anywhere in the harbour. The local carpenters make much-admired ornaments of various kinds from bison-horn; but the industry is very small and the craftsmen are heavily indebted. Customs and post offices, and vernacular school.

The returns of the ports in Ratnágiri District exhibit the trade of the Viziadrúg Customs division and not of Vizíadrúg by itself. The average annual value of the sea-borne trade of the Viziadrúg Customs division for the five years ending 1883–84 was—imports, £114,756, and exports, £133,940. In 1883–84, the value of the trade was—imports, £117,922, and exports, £150,453.

On the neck of rocky land that forms the south side of the bay or harbour, Viziadrúg, one of the strongest Muhammadan fortresses in the Konkan, rises grandly about 100 feet above the river. The fort is probably very old. It was enlarged under the Bijápur kings; and about the middle of the 17th century, it was much strengthened by Sivají, to whom it owes its triple line of walls, numerous towers, and massive interior buildings. About 1698, the pirate chief Angria made it the capital of a territory stretching for about 150 miles along the coast, and from 30 to 60 miles inland. In 1756, the fort surrendered to the English fleet, and Colonel Clive took possession. Towards the close of the same year it was handed over to the Peshwá. In 1818, the whole of the District having passed to the British, the commandants of the fort surrendered.

Vizianagram (*Vijaya-nagaram*, 'City of Vijaya'). — One of the most ancient and extensive estates or *zamíndárís* in India, included in VIZAGAPATAM DISTRICT, Madras Presidency. It is about 3000 square miles in extent, and contains (according to the Census of 1881) 1252 villages, with 185,904 houses and 844,168 inhabitants. The present *zamíndár* (Mahárájá Pusapati Ananda Gajapati Ráz) claims descent from Mádhanavarma, who led a Rájput colony into the Kistna valley in 591 A.D., and whose descendants were important Sardárs at the Court of Golconda. In 1652, one of these, Pusapati Mádhanavarma, entered Vizagapatam, where he and his successors down to the celebrated Viziaráma Ráz, the friend of Bussy, gradually added one tract of country to another, till the Pusapati became the most powerful family in the Northern Circars. Pedda Viziaráma Ráz (so called to distinguish him from his ill-fated grandson, who fell at Padmanabham in 1794) seems to have succeeded his father about 1710. In 1712 he removed his capital from Potnúr to Vizianagram, which he called after his own name. For several years he occupied himself in building a fort

at that city, and gradually extending his dominions. In 1754 he first allied himself to Jafar Alí Khán, the Chicacole Faujdár, but deserted him for the more profitable alliance of the French under Bussy, by whose assistance he was enabled to compass the death of his hereditary enemy the *zamíndár* of BOBBILI in 1757. His triumph was short-lived, however, for three nights after the battle Viziaráma Ráz was assassinated in his tent by two followers of Bobbili.

His successor, Ananda Ráz, smarting under some slight, reversed the policy of his father, and marching on Vizagapatam (at that time in the hands of a French garrison), captured it and made it over to the English (1758). On the arrival of Forde's column from Bengal, Ananda Ráz accompanied it in its victorious march on Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) and Masulipatam. On the return journey he died, and was succeeded by an adopted son—a minor—Viziaráma Ráz, who for many years was entirely in the hands of his half-brother Sítárám Ráz, a clever, unscrupulous, and grasping character. In 1761 he attacked Parla Kimedi, defeating the forces of that State with their Maráthá allies near Chicacole, thereby acquiring a considerable accession of territory, and carried war southward into Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) with similar results. At this time, besides the large State of Vizianagram, governed directly by the Pusapatis, Jaipur, Pálkonda, and 15 other large *zamíndáris* acknowledged the Rájá as suzerain.

Sítárám ruled with great resolution and tenacity, paying his *peshkash* of £30,000 with punctuality, and making capital of his loyalty to the Company, so as to procure, among other advantages, the assistance of British troops for the suppression of his turbulent hill feudatories. By these means the Pusapatis were yet further aggrandized in power and prestige. Naturally, the absolute authority which Sítárám acquired was irksome to his brother the Rájá, and was found intolerable by the many Razavárs or chiefs, who petitioned persistently for his removal in favour of another Díwán, Jagannáth Ráz. But Sítárám had managed his affairs too well, and had secured too many influential officials both in the Circars and at Madras itself to be easily ousted. All the remonstrances of the Court of Directors at home were unavailing; and it was not till after several accusations of corruption had been brought, and it was found necessary to remove the Governor of Madras (Sir T. Rumbold) and two members of Council (1781) as a consequence of this petty quarrel, that Sítárám's star began to set.

In 1784, the Circuit Committee reported on the District, bringing to notice that Vizianagram with his feudatories maintained a standing army of over 12,000 men, which was reasonably held to be a source of danger to the Company. The only immediate result of this report was the temporary retirement of Sítárám. In 1790 he returned for awhile; but in 1793 he was summoned to live at Madras, and from that time dis-

appears from local history. Viziaráma Ráz, from long desuetude, found himself unequal to the task of governing the country and paying his *peshkash*. He fell into heavy arrears, and things going from bad to worse, he declined to obey a Government summons, and prepared to fight, resolving (to judge from his attitude and words), if he could not live and reign like a Pusapati, to die like one. On the 10th June 1794, Colonel Prendergast attacked him at Padmanabham, and completely routed his army after three-quarters of an hour's fighting. The Rájá himself and many of his greatest chiefs were among the slain.

The death of Viziaráma Ráz marks a turning-point in the fortunes of the family. Subject to occasional vicissitudes, the importance of the Pusapatis had steadily increased throughout the century. Their own dominions and those of their feudatories covered an area conterminous with the present Vizagapatam District. Their tenure of this extensive country was that of a tributary prince. The head of the house was honoured by the titles of Mírza and Mania Sultán, and the East India Company accorded him a salute of 19 guns when he visited their Chief at Vizagapatam. These titles and the salute, reduced in 1848 to 13 guns, are still enjoyed as personal family honours. Although the Permanent Settlement altered the tenure by which the present *zamíndárí* is held, it did not deprive the house of its hereditary status. The Government in 1862 recognised the right to the title of Rájá, and admitted the claim to higher distinctions than are usually accorded to *zamíndárs*.

After the battle of Padmanabham, Nárayana Bábu, a minor, son of the late Viziaráma Ráz, fled to the protection of the hill *zamíndárs*, who were disposed to raise the standard of revolt in his favour; but this was averted by timely measures. After protracted negotiations, the Rájá surrendered, and a fresh *kául* or charter was given to him. The hill chiefs were removed from his control, and treated with directly by the Government; and some parts of Vizianagram were absorbed into the Havíli or Government demesne lands. On the reduced Vizianagram *zamíndárí*, a *peshkash* of £60,000 was imposed. In 1802, the Permanent Settlement was made; and at that time the *zamíndárí* contained 24 *parganás* and 1157 villages. The *peshkash* was fixed at £50,000. Nárayana Bábu, the son of Viziaráma Ráz, who had succeeded in 1794, died at Benares in 1845 heavily in debt, having left his estates in the charge of Government for about half of his rule. His successor, Viziaráma Gajapati Ráz, continued this arrangement for seven years, and in 1852 took over the management from Mr. Crozier. The estate was then in a most flourishing condition, and had a credit balance of over £20,000.

The Rájá proved himself worthy of his high place. An accomplished and liberal man, he fulfilled the duties of his position in a manner rarely equalled by an Indian prince. In 1863 he was nominated a

member of the Legislative Council of India. In 1864 he received the title of Mahárájá, to which the prefix of His Highness was subsequently added. He was decorated K.C.S.I.; and in 1877, at the Imperial Proclamation, his salute was fixed at 13 guns. His name was enrolled in the list of the Chiefs of India, whose visits are returned once a year by the Viceroy. The Mahárájá's rule was marked by many enlightened measures. Roads, bridges, hospitals, and various town improvements have been among his works. He spent over £100,000 on works of charity and usefulness, chiefly within his Ráj and at Benares, although in Madras, Calcutta, and even in London there are monuments of his liberality. Towards the close of his life he gave annual subscriptions of over £10,000 to charitable and educational institutions. The Mahárájá died in 1878, and was succeeded by his son, Ananda Ráz, born in 1850. In 1881, the title of Mahárájá was conferred on Ananda Ráz as a personal distinction. In 1882 he was made a Fellow of the Madras University; and he was gazetted Member of the Madras Legislative Council in March 1884.

The *zamíndárí* (within Vizagapatam District) is divided for revenue purposes into 11 *táluks*, and the system of administration is based on the Government practice in adjoining tracts. There are about 30,000 tenants with *pattás* or leases, and 10,000 sub-tenants. The area under the plough is about 275,000 acres; the rates of rent vary from 10s. to £1 per acre for 'wet' land, and 5s. per acre for 'dry' land. Thirty years ago, the land revenue realized was about £100,000 per annum; it is now nearly £180,000. The population is almost entirely Telugu-Hindu. The only towns are VIZIANAGRAM and BIMLIPATAM, but there are several large and thriving agricultural villages. The estate is well supplied with roads, schools, and hospitals, in which matters the Vizianagram Ráj will compare favourably with any part of India.

Vizianagram.—*Zamíndárí táluk* or Sub-division of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Area, 267 square miles. Population (1881) 147,210, namely, males 73,867, and females 73,343; occupying 30,234 houses, in 1 town and 186 villages. Hindus number 143,559; Muhammadans, 3024; Christians, 618; and 'others,' 9.

Vizianagram (*Vijaya-nagaram*, 'City of Vijaya,' name of its founder).—Chief town of Vizianagram *zamíndárí*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 18° 6′ 45″ N., and long. 83° 27′ 20″ E., 17 miles north-west of Bimlipatam. Population (1881) 22,577, namely, males 11,064, and females 11,513; occupying 4484 houses. Hindus number 21,446; Muhammadans, 1105; Christians, 23; and 'others,' 3. Vizianagram is the residence of the Mahárájá, a military cantonment, the head-quarters of the senior Assistant Collector, and a municipality. Municipal income from taxation (1883–84), £1368; incidence of taxation, 1s. 2½d. per head.

Vizianagram is a well-built town, with tiled and terraced houses, and contains a fine market (commemorating the visit of the Prince of Wales to India), a town-hall and other public institutions, the gift of the late Mahárájá. A regiment of Madras native infantry is stationed here. Mr. Carmichael thus describes the place: 'At the distance of one mile from the cantonment, which is placed on ground sloping gently to the northward, are the fort and town, and lying midway is a large tank, which contains water at all seasons of the year. The fort is entirely occupied by the palace and buildings of the Mahárájá. The station contains about 20 officers' houses; the compounds are very prettily laid out in gardens, and surrounded with trim hedges. There is a small church; a chaplain is allowed for the station, but he is required to visit Bimlipatam and Chicacole two Sundays of each month. The climate is generally salubrious, though at some seasons of the year it is less so than at others.'

Vizianárayanam.—Town in Nánguneri *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated 10 miles south-east of Nánguneri. Population (1881) 4387, namely, Hindus, 3722; Christians, 628; and Muhammadans, 37; occupying 998 houses. Police station.

Vonipenta (*Vanipenta*).—Town in Proddutúr *táluk*, Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 46′ 30″ N., long. 78° 49′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 3349, namely, Hindus, 2551; Muhammadans, 777; and Christians, 21; occupying 737 houses. Brass vessels are manufactured to some extent.

Vontimitta (*Wontimetta*, 'Lonely Hill').—Town in Sidhout *táluk*, Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency, and a station on the North-west line of the Madras Railway. Lat. 14° 24′ N., long. 79° 5′ E. Population (1881) 3808, namely, Hindus 3550, and Muhammadans 258; occupying 786 houses. Vontimitta has a large pagoda and a tank of some importance. The pagoda is dedicated to Kodandarámaswámí, and is said to have been built by one of the Chitvail Rájás 300 years ago. If, however, the inscriptions of Gandikota are to be believed, it must have been built by a member of the Vijayanagar dynasty in the 14th century. The neighbourhood is noted for the production of indigo and turmeric.

Vridhachellam.—Town in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. —*See* VIRUDDHACHALAM.

Vútukúr (vulgarly *Utookoor*).—Agricultural village in Pullampet *táluk*, Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 10′ 40″ N., long. 79° 14′ E. Population (1881) 6266, namely, Hindus 5985, and Muhammadans 281; occupying 1322 houses. The village has a fine tank.

Vygai.—River in Madura District, Madras Presidency.—*See* VAIGAI.

Vypín (the Portuguese form of writing the Malayálam word *Veppu*, literally, a deposit, an island formed by the deposits of silt brought down by the rivers here discharging into the backwaters and sea).—Sub-division of Cochin State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 58′ 30″ N., long. 76° 18′ 20″ E. Vypín is an island, and consists of a long narrow strip of land lying between the sea and the backwater, and separated from Cochin proper by the mouth of the river. The date at which the island was formed is preserved in many Cochin deeds which are dated in the *Putu Veppu* (literally, new deposit) era, commencing A.D. 1341. Its southern extremity belongs to the British. In the north is the fort of Ayakotta. It contains a quaint Roman Catholic Church, built in 1666. The Zamorin of Calicut was defeated here in 1503; and throughout the Travancore wars with Mysore this island was a disputed point.

Vyteri (*Vythiri*, *Vayittiri*).—Town in Wainád *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras Presidency. The chief town of the South Wainád coffee country, situated near the head of the Támbarchari *ghát*, down which the coffee is conveyed to the coast. Lat. 11° 32′ 30″ N., long. 76° 6′ E. Population (1881) 5779, namely, Hindus, 4660; Christians, 618; Muhammadans, 483; and 'others,' 18; occupying 332 houses. A sub-magistrate's station, with a considerable European community.

W.

Wáda.—Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Until 1866, Wáda was a petty division of the old Kolvan, the present Sháhápur Sub-division. Along the valley of the Vaitaraní river, which divides the Sub-division from north to south, the land is well cultivated, and the villages are fairly numerous. The rest of the Sub-division, especially in the north-west and the east, is very hilly, and the population extremely scanty. There are no made roads, and, during the rains, the country tracks are impassable. In the interior, the supply of water from the Vaitaraní and the Behya is constant and fair. In other parts, where it is obtained from wells, the supply is doubtful and the water bad. The whole Sub-division is wooded, the forests in some parts stretching for miles. The chief trees are teak, *ain* (Terminalia tomentosa), *mahuá* (Bassia latifolia), *khair* (Acacia Catechu). Area, 310 square miles. Population (1881) 36,493, namely, males 18,838, and females 17,655; occupying 5868 houses in 153 villages. Hindus number 34,899; Muhammadans, 1174; and 'others,' 420. About 42 square miles are occupied by alienated villages. The remainder consists of 56,688 acres of cultivable land; 19,286 acres of uncultivable waste; 42,344 acres of village forests; 42,838 acres o

Government forest; and 9724 acres of alienated land in Government villages. In 1864–65, when the survey rates were introduced, 2311 holdings or *khátás* were recorded. In 1879–80 there were 3261 holdings with an average area of 28¼ acres, and an average rental of £2, 2s. 1½d. In 1880–81, 26,787 acres were under actual cultivation, of which 695 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 22,291 acres; pulses, 3115 acres; oil-seeds, 1395 acres; fibres, 566 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 115 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 2 criminal courts; police circle (*tháná*), 1; regular police, 33 men. Land revenue, £4955.

Wáda.—Village in Thána District, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Wáda Sub-division; situated 18 miles north-west of the Sháhápur station, on the north-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Population (1881) 1672. School and rest-house.

Wadal.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 2 separate shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 2 square miles. Population (1881) 545. The revenue is estimated at £255; tribute is paid of £15, 8s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wadali.—Petty State in the Hállár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 1 separate shareholder or tribute-payer. Area, 2 square miles. Population (1881) 590. The revenue is estimated at £200; tribute is paid of £24, 12s. to the British Government, and £7, 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Wadali.—Town in Mahi Kántha, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; situated 12 miles north of Idar. A considerable and very ancient town, perhaps the O-cha-li or Wadari which Hiuen Tsiang describes as between Málwa and Walabhi. In the 11th century, Wadali was the centre of a large kingdom. Population (1881) 5477, namely, Hindus, 4580; Jains, 590; and Muhammadans, 307.

Wadgáon.—Town in Poona (Puna) District, Bombay Presidency, and a station in the south-east extension of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; situated 23 miles north-west of Poona city. Population (1881) 1348. The scene of the disgraceful convention of Wadgáon, where in 1778–79 the commanders of the English army, which had been sent to restore Raghunáth Ráo to the Peshwáship, agreed to give up to the Maráthás all the British conquests since 1773 as the price of being allowed to retreat. Sub-judge's court, weekly market on Tuesdays.

Wadgáon.—Town in the Native State of Kolhápur, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 50′ 10″ N., long. 74° 22′ 2″ E. Population (1881) 4890.

Wadgáon.—Town in Akola District, Berar; situated south-east of

Bálápur, nearly half-way between Bálápur and Patúr, with which towns it is connected by a metalled road. Population (1881) 6096, namely, Hindus, 5473; Muhammadans, 562; and Jains, 61.

Wadhwan.—Petty Bhíl State in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Wadhwán.—Native State in the Jhálawár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Area of the State, 237 square miles. Population (1881) 42,500, namely, males 22,026, and females 20,474; occupying 9226 houses, in 1 town and 30 villages. Hindus number 34,808; Muhammadans, 2313; and 'others,' 5379. The soil is black and light, in about equal proportions. The country is flat, and is irrigated to some extent. The climate is hot, but healthy; the commonest form of sickness is fever. Cotton and the usual grains are grown. Salt and country soap are the chief articles of manufacture, but weaving and dyeing are also carried on to a considerable extent. Before the opening of the Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway the surplus produce of the State was exported from the port of Dholera. Wadhwán ranks as a second-class State in Káthiáwár; its ruler, like other Káthiáwár chiefs, entered into the usual engagements in 1807. He has power to try his own subjects for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent. The present chief received his tuition at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot. He is a Hindu of the Jhála clan of Rájputs, and administers his estate in person. His name is Dájiráj, and his title Thakúr Sáhib. He enjoys an estimated revenue of £40,000, and pays a tribute of £2869, 3s. 1d. (including £8, 14s. 1d. as *sukhdi* on account of Ahmadábád District) jointly to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh. The family in matters of succession follow the rule of primogeniture, but hold no *sanad* authorizing adoption. The chief maintains a military force of 438 men. There are 19 schools, with a total of 1297 pupils. Transit dues are not levied.

Wadhwán.—Chief town of Wadhwán State; situated on the Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway, in lat. 22° 42′ N., and long. 71° 44′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 16,949, namely, males 8824, and females 8125. Hindus number 11,430; Jains, 3853; Muhammadans, 1663; and Pársís, 3.

Wadhwán is fortified, and the chief's palace (an imposing building when seen at a distance) occupies a commanding position in the southern portion of the town. It is a local centre of the cotton trade, and has a wealthy community of merchants. A large import trade is also carried on in grain, *ghí*, and cotton stuffs. Excellent country soap manufactured here is used throughout Káthiáwár, and is also exported to Gujarát. The native saddles and horse furniture generally are of local fame. The stone-cutters and quarrymen also are skilled workmen.

Wadhwán town was founded in very ancient times. It has acquired its modern importance from being the junction station of the Wadhwán branch of the Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway with the Bhaunagar-Gondal line.

Wadhwán.—Civil station in the Káthiáwár Agency, Bombay Presidency; situated in Wadhwán State, about 3 miles west of Wadhwán town, 66 miles north-east of Rájkot, and 104 miles north-north-east of Bhaunagar. It is connected with Ahmadábád and Bombay by the Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway, with Bhaunagar by the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway, and with Rájkot by an excellent bridged road. The ground on which the station is built is leased from the Wadhwán *darbár* and Dúdhrej *girásiás* for an annual rent of £225 to Wadhwán, and £25 to Dúdhrej. Jail, school, dispensary, the usual public offices, good market or *bázár*, and a clock tower presented by Mr. Jardine of the Bombay Civil Service. Among other buildings are a good *dharmsála*, travellers' bungalow, cotton market, grain and vegetable market, and a *tálukdári* school where the sons of *girásiás*, who are unable to afford the expense of the Rájkumár College, can obtain education. Population (1881) 3091.

Wadnagar.—Sub-division of Kadi District, Baroda (Gáekwár's territory). The Sub-division is a plain. The Khári touches the north-western boundary, but its water being brackish is not fit for drinking purposes. Other water is often hard to get, the wells being from 80 to 100 feet deep. The soil is for the most part sandy, though there are patches of black soil. Area, 76 square miles. Population (1881) 30,057, namely, males 14,484, and females 15,573. Hindus number 26,085; Muhammadans, 3253; and Jains, 719. In 1879–80, 4430 holdings were recorded with an average area of $3\frac{2}{7}$ acres.

Wadnagar.—The chief town of the Wadnagar Sub-division of the State of Baroda, Gujarát; situated 9 miles north-east of Visnagar. Population (1881) 15,424, namely, males 7241, and females 8183. According to some accounts, Wadnagar was founded by a prince of the Solar dynasty, who abandoned his kingdom, of which Ayodhya was the capital, in 145 A.D., and wrested a dominion from a prince of the Pramara race. This town gives its name to a section of Nágar Bráhmans, of whom only two individuals without children now reside there. Wadnagar probably occupies the site of the Anandpura mentioned as the capital of different Nágar Gotrás as early as 226 A.D. Hiuen Tsiang found it very populous in the seventh century. Wadnagar was long the chartered refuge of an infamous class of robbers, the Dhinoj Bráhmans. The protection of the Baroda *darbár* was withdrawn from them at the request of the Bombay Government in the reign of Sayájí Maháráj. There are at present about 200 families of

Dhinoj Bráhmans, who lead a quiet life, and generally resort to Bombay for employment or as traders.

Wadner.—Village in Hinganghát *tahsíl*, Wardhá District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2010, namely, Hindus, 1788; Muhammadans, 116; Jains, 3; and non-Hindu aborigines, 103.

Wadod.—Petty State in the Jhálawár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WAROD.

Wadod.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WAROD.

Wa-ga-ru.—Township in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; bounded on the east by the Taung-nyu Hills, and on the west by the Bay of Bengal; extreme length, 28 miles. Consists of an upland tract, broken at places by small rice plains and by lofty granite hills; intersected by numerous tidal creeks, most of which debouch into the open sea, and are therefore useless for native craft during the rainy season.

Wa-gay-ma.—Village in the Shwe-laung township of Thon-gwa District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. Consists of two portions, of which that lying on the northern bank of the Wa-gay-ma river is called Taw-ta-no. Total population (1878) 1992; not returned separately in Census Report of 1881. Considerable trade in rice.

Wághári.—River in Wún District, Berar, rising south of Yeotmál. For a short distance it flows east, and then turning south, passes on among ravines and rocks for about 40 miles, until it joins the Paingangá (Pengangá). The Wághári is not navigable.

Wágra.—Sub-division of Broach District, Bombay Presidency. The eastern part of the Sub-division is a flat rich plain of black soil; but the west, with the exception of a small fertile tract of light soil, forms an unfruitful salt plain. The water-supply is deficient in quantity and of inferior quality, a large proportion of the wells being brackish. Area, 308 square miles. Population (1881) 33,902, namely, males 17,599, and females 16,303; occupying 7758 houses, in 69 villages. Hindus number 26,059; Muhammadans, 4902; and 'others,' 2941. Of the total area, 4 square miles are occupied by alienated villages. The remainder contains 124,921 acres of occupied land and 12,533 acres of cultivable waste, including 34,660 acres of alienated lands in Government villages; 50,549 acres of uncultivable waste; and 6845 acres of village sites, roads, etc. In 1872–73, the year of settlement, 7033 holdings or *khátás* were recorded, with an average area of 16⅞ acres, paying an average assessment of £4, 13s. 3½d. The head-quarters of the Sub-division are at Wágra, a village situated in lat. 21° 50′ N., and long. 72° 53′ E. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circle (*tháná*), 1; regular police, 27 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 455. Revenue, £1876.

Wagwári.—Petty State in the Soráth *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 2 separate shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 3 square miles. Population (1881) 89. The revenue is estimated at £120; and tribute is paid of £13, 10*s.* to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £1, 18*s.* to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Wái (*Wye*).—The extreme north-west Sub-division of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency. Wái is surrounded and crossed in a number of directions by spurs of the Sahyádris, while it is divided by the Mahádeo range into two halves belonging to the valleys of the Kistna and Nira rivers. The Kistna half is the more fertile of the two, the country near the river is well wooded, and the hills in parts are fairly clothed with trees. The other half, termed the Khandála petty division, is bare and slopes towards the Nira, which separates it from Poona District. Land is watered both from wells and streams. Near the Kistna the soil is good; elsewhere it is poor. Area, 392 square miles. Population (1881) 88,610, namely, males 43,767, and females 44,843; occupying 12,104 houses, in 1 town and 124 villages. Hindus number 85,489; Muhammadans, 2857; and 'others,' 264. In 1882–83, the number of holdings, including alienated lands in Government villages, was 19,074, with an average area of 6·79 acres. In 1881–82, the area under actual cultivation was 82,448 acres, of which 2469 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 70,076 acres; pulses, 11,001 acres; oil-seeds, 2884 acres; fibres, 37 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 919 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 4 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 87 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 85. Revenue, £19,488.

Wái.—Chief town of the Wái Sub-division of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency; situated 20 miles north by west of Sátára town, and 15 miles east of Mahábleshwar, in lat. 17° 56′ 50″ N., and long. 73° 56′ E., on the river Kistna. Population (1881) 11,676, namely, males 5728, and females 5948. Hindus number 10,683; Muhammadans, 963; Jains, 15; and Christians, 15. Wái is one of the most sacred places on the Kistna, and has a large Bráhman population. The face of the Kistna river for half a mile is lined with steps, and for an hour after dawn and before sunset people are incessantly engaged in ablutions and clothes-washing. Wái is a commercial centre containing about 150 well-to-do traders, and also a place of pilgrimage. The municipality, which was established in 1855, had in 1883–84 an income of £574; incidence of taxation, 11¼*d.* per head. Sub-judge's court, dispensary, post-office, travellers' bungalow, and about twenty temples.

Waigáon.—Town in Wardhá *tahsíl*, Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated 8 miles south of Wardhá town, on the Wardhá valley road. Population (1881) 2741, chiefly cultivators of the Telí

and Kunbí castes, with a few weavers. The town is built on the top of a stony slope; water is sometimes very scarce in the hot season. An annual fair is held during the *Dasahara* festival, in honour of the god Bálájí, to whom there is an old temple of considerable local repute. *Sarái* (native inn) and village school.

Wainád (correctly *Vayanád*, more commonly *Wynaad*).—Highland *táluk* of Malabar District, Madras Presidency, lying between 11° 27′ and 11° 58′ N. lat., and between 75° 50′ 45″ and 76° 41′ E. long.; containing (in 1881) 13 *amshams* or parishes, 8666 houses, and 88,091 inhabitants, and covering an area of 999 square miles. The Wainád consists of a table-land amid the Western Ghâts, 60 miles long by 30 broad; average height above sea-level, 3000 feet. Bounded on the north by Coorg; on the east by Mysore; on the south by the Nílgiris; and on the south-west and west by Kottayam, Kurumbranád, and Ernád *táluks* of Malabar.

The most characteristic features in the configuration of the Wainád are low ridges with sharp peaks (rising in some places to the height of 5000 and 6000 feet) and extensive valleys. Towards the east, where it merges into the table-land of Mysore, the country becomes flatter. In the south-east the Ghâts are low, till they meet the Nílgiris near Neddivattam, whence they fall in magnificent slopes to the low country. The forests abound with game, and are rich in teak, blackwood, and other timber trees. The principal rivers are the Kabbani and Moyár. The climate is moist, and for eight months of the year, cool and pleasant for Europeans. The fever, for which the Wainád was once notorious, has become less prevalent with increased clearing. The rainfall averages about 130 inches in the year; but it is much heavier on the Ghâts than on the eastern border adjoining Mysore. The average rainfall at Mánantavádi, the head-quarters of the *táluk*, for the fourteen years ending 1881 was 91·45 inches. Rice, horse gram, *ragí*, and many other kinds of grain are cultivated on the slopes; but the chief product of the Wainád is coffee. There are at present (1883) 13,483 plantations, covering an area of 48,725 acres, of which 22,027 acres are under mature plants, 2698 acres under immature plants, and 24,000 acres taken up for planting but not yet planted. The yield was 3,436,212 lbs. of coffee, or 156 lbs. per acre of mature plants. The cultivation area is yearly increasing. The total value of the coffee estates is probably over 2 millions sterling.

A new outlet for European capital and energy has been recently found in the gold region of the Wainád. Investigations into the value of the quartz reefs have been made at intervals during this century, but it was not till within the last few years that companies were started with European capital to crush the quartz on scientific principles. The results, so far, have not been conclusive. Some millions of British

capital have been sunk, and several mines are now at work. The industry suffered acutely during the early stage through which most enterprises of the sort have to pass—a temporary collapse following on extravagant anticipations. But the prospects are now (1886) more hopeful; and the best judges believe that some of the mines will eventually prove remunerative. The following brief account is condensed from a paper by Mr. R. Brough Smith, who was deputed by the Government to examine and report upon the prospects of gold-mining in Southern Madras.

Gold seems to be almost universally distributed throughout the soils and quartz veins of the Wainád. In South-east Wainád, on washing a few dishes of the surface soil anywhere, specks of very fine gold will be found; in the vicinity of the reefs rather heavy gold is frequently obtained by sluicing; and if a suitable spot be selected, the native miners, even by their rude methods, get sufficient gold to remunerate them for their labour. The character of the rocks, the nature of the climate, and the formation of the country, have all contributed to prevent the accumulation of drifts such as are found in California and Australia. From the appearance of the mines and the soil on the slopes of the hills, it is almost certain that gold was worked in Malabar from a very early period. The industry, however, has no history. In 1831, a British officer was appointed to search for gold in the mountains of the Malabar coast, but two years afterwards the efforts were abandoned by Government; and it was not till 1865 that a planter applied for and obtained leave to search for gold on Government land. His example was followed by others, and companies were formed to work the gold fields, but the results, from various causes, proved unsatisfactory, and the works were brought to a stand. Mr. Brough Smith, in his Report to the Government of Madras, dated 30th October 1879, minutely describes the various auriferous tracts in the Wainád, and gives in detail his professional opinion as to the causes of the failure of the previous attempts to work the mines. He publishes results of 137 different assays, and thus summarizes his views concerning the future prospects of the industry in a concluding paragraph of his Report:—

'The reefs are very numerous, and they are of more than the average thickness of those found in other countries; they are of great longitudinal extent, some being traceable by their outcrops for several miles; they are strong and persistent, and highly auriferous at an elevation of less than 500 feet above the sea, and they can be traced thence upwards to a height of nearly 8000 feet; near them gold can be washed out of almost every dish of earth that is dug: the proportion of gold in some of the soils and reefs in the neighbourhood of Devála is large; and, the country presenting the greatest facilities for prosecuting mining operations at the smallest cost, it must be apparent

to all who have given attention to this question, that sooner or later gold-mining will be established as an important industry in Southern India.'

A portion of the Wainád, containing the chief auriferous quartz region, was in 1877 made over to the Nílgiris District, and what remains to Malabar is under the control of a Deputy Collector, whose head-quarters are at MANANTAVADI. The population in 1881 numbered 88,091, namely, males 49,661, and females 38,430. Hindus numbered 76,898; Muhammadans, 9056; Christians, 1983; and 'others,' 154. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 10; regular police, 116 men. Land revenue, £9989.

Wainád, South-east.—Sub-division of Nílgiris District, Madras Presidency; comprising the minor divisions of Cheramkod, area 41 square miles, population (1881) 4280; Munnanád, area 60 square miles, population (1881) 6292; Nambalakod, area 139 square miles, population (1881) 14,868. Total area of the Sub-division, 240 square miles. Total population (1881) 25,440, namely, males 15,429, and females 10,011; occupying 4375 houses in 3 villages. The Sub-division was transferred in 1877 from Malabar District to the Nílgiris, and placed under a Head Assistant-Collector, whose head-quarters are at Devála.—*See* also preceding article WAINAD, highland *táluk* of Malabar.

Waingangá.—River of the Central Provinces, rising in Seoní District, a few miles east of the Nágpur and Jabalpur road, near the village of Rájhola. At first, it flows in a north-westerly direction; then turning north, it skirts the west of Seoní District; and not far to the west of Chhapárá, where it is crossed by a fine bridge with 12 arches of 50 feet span, it turns again and flows east till the confluence of the Thánwar. At this point it changes its course to the south, and after passing through a mountain gorge, enters the open country known as the valley of the Waingangá. For about 60 miles it flows nearly due south, parting Seoní and Bálághát Districts. It then receives the Bágh, and rolls on in a south-westerly direction through Bhandárá. After passing Bhandárá town, it is joined by its main tributary, the Kanhán; then turning towards the south-east, it traverses Chándá, until at a point about 30 miles south-east of Chánda town it unites with the Wardhá, in lat. 19° 36′ 10″ N., and long. 79° 50′ E., to form the Pranhítá river, which ultimately falls into the Godávari. At the confluence of the Wardhá and Waingangá occurs the mass of rock known as the Third Barrier of the Godávari. The Waingangá is navigable during the rains for about a hundred miles above its junction with the Kanhán. Its greatest breadth is 300 yards, and its total length to its union with the Wardhá about 350 miles. Its chief affluents, besides those above mentioned, are the Báwantharí, Chulban, Gárhví, Khobrágarhi, Kámen, Potpuri, Kurúr, Botwári, and Andhári.

Wair.—Town in Bhartpur State, Rájputána.—*See* WER.

Wairágarh.—*Parganá* in the north-east of Chándá District, Central Provinces; comprising 116 *khálsa* villages and 16 chiefships. Area, 1960 square miles. The Gárhví river joins the Waingangá at the north-west corner of this *parganá*, and the Khobrágarhi intersects it from east to west. The country is very hilly, especially towards the east, and mostly covered with dense forest. The soil is generally sandy or red. Chief product, rice. The most important villages are ARMORI and WAIRAGARH.

Wairágarh.—Ancient town, now a petty village, in Brahmapurí *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 25′ N., and long. 80° 7′ E., 80 miles north-east of Chándá town, at the confluence of the Khobrágarhi and Tepágarhi. Tradition ascribes the foundation of the town to a king of the family of the Moon, in the *Dwapar Yug*, who called it Wairágarh after his own name, Wairochan. Nearer historical times, it was ruled by Máná chiefs, who about the 9th century gave way to the Gonds; and a line of Gond princes held the *parganás* of Garhbori, Rájgarh, and Wairágarh, in subordination to the Chándá kings. Noble groves of ancient trees surround the town; and in the centre tower the walls and bastions of the large stone fort, built about 1600, which contains the tomb of the Gond prince Durga Sháh. In the forest around, many traces of ancient buildings remain; and near the town stand several old temples, the most interesting being those sacred to Mahákáli and Maḥádeva. Near the former, in a deep reach of the Khobrágarhi, an old-world temple is said to be buried in the sands. Wairágarh is very unhealthy during the autumn and early winter; and most of its trade has passed to ARMORI. Population (1881) 2279, namely, Hindus, 1907; Muhammadans, 196; and non-Hindu aborigines, 176. Good sandstone and granite are obtained near the village; and diamond and ruby mines were formerly worked. The town has Government schools for boys, a District post-office, and police office.

Wajiria.—Petty State of Sankheda Mehwás, Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 21 square miles, containing 22 villages. The revenue is estimated at £3248; tribute is paid of £500, 14s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda. On the death of the late chief, Kalubawa, his son Kesar Khán, aged about 6 years (1883), has succeeded him. Owing to the latter's minority, the attachment over the estate enforced in consequence of Kalubawa's imbecility has been continued.

Wakori.—Village in Rámtek *tahsíl*, Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2345, namely, Hindus, 2146; Kabírpanthís, 87; Muhammadans, 108; and 'others,' 4.

Waktapur.—Petty State of Pandu Mehwás, Rewá Kántha,

Bombay Presidency. Area, 1¼ square miles. There are three chiefs, who bear the title of Ráwal. The revenue is estimated at £66; and tribute is paid of £15, 2s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wala.—Native State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; lying between 21° 51′ and 21° 57′ N. lat., and between 71° 49′ and 72° 3′ E. long. Area, 140 square miles. Population (1881) 17,019; number of villages, 41. The soil is black and also light; and irrigation is practised to some extent. The climate is hot and dry. The usual grains, sugar-cane, and cotton are grown. The territory lies inland, and the road from Gogo to Ahmadábád passes through it, the nearest ports being Bháunagar and Dholera. The chief town stands on the site of the ancient Vallabhi, the seat of a dynasty of Gupta kings. Copper-plates, coins, rings, and other relics of this dynasty are frequently found. Wala ranks as a third-class State in Káthiáwár; its ruler entered into the usual engagements in 1807. The present chief is Thakúr Wakhatsinhjí Megrájjí, a Hindu of the Gohel clan of Rájputs, who received his tuition at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot, and administers his State in person. He enjoys an estimated revenue of £13,500; pays a tribute of £920, 4s. jointly to the Gáekwár of Baroda and the Nawáb of Junágarh; and maintains a military force of 146 men. The family follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession, but do not hold a *sanad* authorizing adoption. There are 11 schools, with a total of 342 pupils.

Wala.—Capital of Wala State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 21° 52′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 57′ 30″ E., about 22 miles north-west of Bháunagar, and 16 miles north of Songarh civil station. The ancient name of Wala was Walabhipur; and it was from this spot that the dynasty, founded by the Senápati of the Guptás, swayed for a period of about 300 years the destinies of the Káthiáwár peninsula. Previous to the foundation of Walabhi, the official capital had always been Wámansthali (Wanthal), as the religious capital had been Patan Somnáth. Not much is known about the Walabhi kings save what can be gleaned from their copper-plate grants; but these show them to have reigned, roughly speaking, from about 480 A.D. to 790 A.D., when their capital was sacked, and their dynasty overthrown by foreign invaders. There are but few architectural remains at Wala. The houses appear to have been built principally of mud, but some are of brick. Old foundations are constantly dug up even at the present day. Old coins and copper-plates are found, as well as mud seals, beads, and small household images. But there do not appear to have been any large or imposing buildings in stone; or if there were, all trace of them has disappeared. There is not any very great trade at Wala. The principal exports are wheat and cotton, while sugar, cloth, timber, and grain are the chief imports. Population (1881) 4972.

Wálájá.—*Táluk* of North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Wálájá *táluk* is made up of the old *táluks* of Káveripák and Sholingarh combined in 1861, together with a few villages from the old *táluk* of Tiruvallam. For the most part the surface is flat, and the soil more or less sandy; but in the north several hills occur. The elevation of these hills is inconsiderable, being not more than 500 feet above the plain. The chief mineral product is granite, which is dressed and exported to Madras. Area, 484 square miles. Population (1881) 199,177, namely, males 98,863, and females 100,314; occupying 27,339 houses, in 3 towns and 281 villages. Hindus number 192,091; Muhammadans, 5814; Christians, 1232; and 'others,' 40. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 10; regular police, 102 men. Land revenue, £40,411. Head-quarters at WALAJAPET. The South-west line of the Madras Railway crosses the *táluk* from east to west, while the North-west line traverses it from south to north.

Wálájábád (*Válájábadu*, named after the Princes of Arcot; also called *Paliya Shivaram*).—Town in Conjeveram *táluk*, Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency, and a station on the Arconum branch of the South Indian Railway. Lat. 12° 47′ 25″ N., long. 79° 51′ 51″ E. Population (1881) 4386, namely, Hindus, 3601; Muhammadans, 614; and Christians, 171. Formerly a military station and a depôt for cadets in the East India Company's service.

Wálájápet (or *Válájánagar*, also called after the Arcot family).—Town and municipality in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Wálájá *táluk*; situated in lat. 12° 55′ 35″ N., and long. 79° 24′ 20″ E., 3 miles from Arcot town, on the left bank of the river Pálár, and 2 miles from Arcot station on the South-west line of the Madras Railway. Population (1881) 10,387, namely, males 4867, and females 5520; occupying 2172 houses. Hindus number 9566; Muhammadans, 803; and Christians, 18. Municipal income from taxation (1883–84), £740; incidence of taxation, 1s. 5d. per head. A neat, well-built trading town, with broad streets and tiled houses. The municipality is admirably worked without European assistance. Weaving in silk and cotton, dyeing, carpet-making, and the manufacture of oils chiefly employ the people.

Wálam.—Town in the Kadi District of the State of Baroda, Gujarát. Population (1881) 6043, namely, males 3022, and females 3021. School.

Walasna.—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency. The amount of land under cultivation is estimated at 3800 acres. The chief is Thakúr Mán Singhji, a Ráhtor Rájput. The family holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption; but in matters of succession the rule of primogeniture is followed. Population (1881) 4358, inhabiting 10 villages.

The revenue is estimated at £724; tribute is paid of £28 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Walidpur.—Town in Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 3′ 35″ N., long. 83° 25′ 30″ E., on the Tons river, 12 miles from Azamgarh town. Population (1881) 5343, namely, Muhammadans 2823, and Hindus 2520. Number of houses, 839. The surrounding lands are in a high state of cultivation. Weaving is carried on at upwards of 225 looms. Market twice a week. The principal landholding family are the descendants of Makhdum Shaikh Mushaiyid of Jaunpur, who received a grant of the lands from Sultán Husain, the last king of Jaunpur, in the latter half of the 15th century.

Walsad.—Port and municipal town in Surat District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* BULSAR.

Waltair (*Válteru*).—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras, in lat. 17° 44′ N., and long. 83° 22′ 36″ E. Population (1881) 1482, inhabiting 305 houses. The European suburb of VIZAGAPATAM, situated 3 miles north of that town. Although only 230 feet above sea-level, it is remarkable for its healthy climate; and all the European officers, civil and military, live here. The garrison consists of 1 Native infantry regiment.

Wálwa.—The extreme south-west Sub-division of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency. It consists of two parts, the Kistna and lower Wárna valley in the east, and the upper Wárna valley in the west. The lower valley is a black soil plain; the upper valley is hilly, and in the extreme west has some of the densest forest in Sátára District. Much of the east is one great garden, adorned by mango groves. Area, 543 square miles. Population (1881) 169,408, namely, males 86,622, and females 82,786; occupying 28,572 houses, in 4 towns and 132 villages. Hindus number 155,990; Muhammadans, 7289; and 'others,' 6129. In 1882–83, the number of holdings, including alienated lands in Government villages, was 7597, with an average area of 26·95 acres. In 1881–82, the area under actual cultivation was 124,834 acres, of which 7585 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 93,158; pulses, 18,531; oil-seeds, 3437; fibres, 8230; and miscellaneous crops, 9063. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 75 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 149. Revenue, £44,195. Head-quarters at PETH.

Wán (or *Bán*).—River of Berar, whose source is in the Sátpura range, running in an almost direct course through Akola District to the Púrna, which it joins in lat. 20° 55′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 47′ E. This river differs from sister streams, whose beds in the region of the deep black soil are sandy and usually fringed with black mud, whereas the Wán has a stony channel laid on a deep loam deposit. Wading

is dangerous, the round and oval smooth stones affording very insecure footing, even when the stream is little more than knee-deep. The Wán varies in width from ⅛ to ½ mile between old banks, which become more prominent as the Púrna is approached; these old banks of *muram* and trap furnish excellent village sites, dry, hard, and healthy. The alluvial deposit between the stream itself and its old banks is used as garden ground, and is irrigated from wells. The course of this river can be traced as a continuous green line marked by the tops of trees growing along the water edge of the true banks, not visible till near at hand, in strange contrast to the brown line of the rugged old banks above.

Wanala.—Petty State in the Jhálawár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 2 separate shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 3 square miles. Population (1881) 625. The revenue is estimated at £267; tribute is paid of £39, 12s. to the British Government.

Wánbhachran (*Ván Bachrán*).—Town in Miánwáli *tahsíl*, Bannu District, Punjab; situated in the cis-Sutlej tract on the road from Miánwáli to Sháhpur. Population (1868) 6178, namely, Muhammadans, 5813; Hindus, 363; and Sikhs, 2. Not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. The place takes its name from a *ván* or well with a staircase leading down to the water, said to have been built by Akbar, with a pair of tall *minárs* standing at the head of the staircase.

Wandiwash.—South-east *táluk* or Sub-division of North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. The physical appearance of the *táluk* is that of a level plain with a very few rocky hills rising out of it. The soil is usually poor, having much sand and gravel mixed with red and black clays, and being in parts impregnated with soda, which effloresces during the dry season and renders the ground sterile. Area, 466 square miles. Population (1881) 148,100, namely, males 73,426, and females 74,674; occupying 19,128 houses, in 1 town and 374 villages. Hindus number 140,287; Muhammadans, 2238; Christians, 1378; and 'others,' 4197. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 4; regular police, 44 men. Land revenue, £32,211.

Wandiwash (*Vandivásu*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Wandiwash *táluk*. Lat. 12° 30′ 20″ N., long. 79° 38′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 4130, namely, Hindus, 3389; Muhammadans, 709; Christians, 31; and 'others,' 1; occupying 622 houses. Wandiwash is historically interesting as the scene of several important operations in the War of the Karnátik. The fort belonged to a member of the family of the Nawáb of Arcot. In 1752 it was attacked by Major Lawrence; in 1757, Colonel Aldercom destroyed the town, but failed to capture the fort. The French garrison

twice in that year repulsed the English. A more energetic attack under Monson in 1759 was also unsuccessful. Immediately after this, the French soldiers mutinied; and although they were speedily pacified, before the end of the year the fort surrendered to Coote. In 1760, Lally appeared before the fort; in a day or two he was joined by Bussy and 3000 Maráthá auxiliaries. Before the siege had far progressed, Coote came up; and in the pitched battle which ensued, the French were utterly routed, and Bussy was taken prisoner. This victory was in itself and by its consequences the most important ever won over the French in India. In 1780, Lieutenant Flint by a bold stratagem saved the fort from falling into the hands of Haidar Alí, and with very inadquate means held it for nearly three years against every device of the enemy. Twice he was relieved by Sir Eyre Coote, and twice at least he repelled vigorous assaults.

Wandren.—Town in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency. —*See* BANDRA.

Wangadra.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 1 tribute-payer. The revenue is estimated at £200; tribute is paid of £7, 18s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2, 10s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Wánkáner.—Native State in the Jháláwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Area, 376 square miles. Population (1881) 30,491, namely, males 15,942, and females 14,549; occupying 6354 houses, in 1 town and 86 villages. Hindus number 21,395; Muhammadans, 7508; and 'others,' 1588. The soil is chiefly light, and the territory is hilly; irrigation is practised to some extent. The climate is hot, but healthy; the prevailing disease is fever. A kind of black marble is found within the limits of the State. The principal products are grain, sugar-cane, and cotton; the chief manufacture is salt. The nearest port is Joriya. Wánkáner ranks as a second-class State in Káthiáwár; its ruler entered into the usual engagements in 1807. He has power to try for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent, his own subjects only. He maintained in 1882–83 a force of 242 men. The family follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession, but do not hold a *sanad* authorizing adoption. The present chief, Rájásáhib Gagubha, a Hindu of the Jhála clan of Rájputs, is a minor, and the State is administered by a Government *kárbhári*. The revenue in 1882–83 was £16,242; a tribute of £1887, 18s. is paid jointly to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh. The Wánkáner chief also owns the village of Khasta in Ahmadábád District, the annual income of which is about £4000. There are 9 schools, with a total of 542 pupils.

Wánkáner.—Town in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, capital of the Wánkáner State; situated in lat. 22° 36′ 10″ N., and long. 71° 2′ 50″ E., about 24 miles north-north-east of Rájkot. Population (1881) 5533, namely, Hindus, 2804; Muhammadans, 1807; Jains, 921; and Christian, 1. The town is locally famous for the manufacture of cotton cloth, such as scarves, waistcloths, etc., and also for locks and shoes. Post-office, dispensary, *dharmsála*, school. The principal exports are cotton cloth, *ghí*, which is usually sent to Rájkot, and a small quantity of grain and raw cotton. The imports are metals, timber, and cloth of English manufacture.

Wanna.—Petty State in the Jhálawár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 3 villages, with 6 separate shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 24 square miles. Population (1881) 3494. The revenue is estimated at £2231; tribute is paid of £371, 10s. to the British Government, and £27, 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Wanod.—Petty State in the Jhálawár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 8 villages, with 1 proprietor. Area, 58 square miles. Population (1881) 6766. The revenue is estimated at £1210; tribute is paid of £195, 6s. to the British Government.

Wánsdá.—State in Gujarát, Bombay Presidency.—*See* BANSDA.

Wanthali (*Banthly, Vanathali*).—Town in the Sorath *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 28′ 30″ N., long. 70° 22′ 15″ E.; situated about 9 miles west-south-west of Junágarh. Population (1881) 6529, namely, Muhammadans, 3554; Hindus, 2749; and Jains, 226. Wanthali is famous for its coppersmiths' and ironsmiths' work and vessels. The modern name is said to have been corrupted from the ancient name, Wámansthali, or the abode of Wáman. The town was also known as Wámanpur and Wámandhám. It was also sometimes called Deosthali, which was corrupted into Dethali.

Wáo.—Native State in the Political Superintendency of Pálanpur, Bombay. It extends from north to south about 35 miles, and from east to west 15 miles. It is bounded on the north by Sáchor in Málwá, on the east and south by the Tharád and Suigám States, and on the west by the salt desert of the Rann. It possesses an area of 380 square miles. Population (1881) 27,735. The country is a flat sandy plain, with the exception of its western boundary, where the soil changes to a hard clay. The chief products are millets and pulse; water is plentifully obtained from 9 to 40 feet below the surface, but it is generally brackish. Irrigation is nowhere practised. The prevailing disease is fever. The climate is very hot from April to July, and also in October and November. The ruling family originally came from Sembhor and

Nándol in Márwár, and claims kindred with the Chauhán King of Delhi, Prithwi Ráj. After various vicissitudes of fortune, Dedh Ráo was driven out of Nándol, and obtained possession of Tharád, then subordinate to the Rájput dynasty reigning at Pátan. Ráná Punja, the seventh in descent from Dedh Ráo, was killed in battle, and the territory recovered from the Chauháns. Ráná Waza, the son of Punja, built the town of Wáo. The present chief is Ráná Umed Singhji, a Hindu of the Chauhán clan of Rájputs, eighteenth in descent from Ráná Punja. He is twenty-seven years of age, and manages his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated revenue of £3000, and maintains a military force of 50 men. The family follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession. There is 1 school, with 95 pupils.

Wáo.—Town in Gujarát, Bombay Presidency, and capital of Wáo State; situated in lat. 24° 21′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 30′ E. In 1809, Wáo contained not fewer than 1000 Rájput families of rank. It suffered very severely from the great famine of 1813; and in 1828 had sunk to an insignificant condition, with no remains of prosperity but ruined walls and empty enclosures. Population (1872) 3065; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881.

Waori Dharwála.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 4 villages, with 5 separate shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 4 square miles. Population (1881) 2217. The revenue is estimated at £1005; tribute is paid of £129, 12s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £23, 8s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Waori Wachháni.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 2 villages, with 1 proprietor. Area, 71 square miles. Population (1881) 275. The revenue is estimated at £300; tribute is paid of £29, 16s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £5, 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Warágám.—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. The land under cultivation is estimated at 12,575 acres. The chief is Thakúr Rái Singhi, a Rehwár Rájput. The family holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption; but in matters of succession the rule of primogeniture is followed. Population (1881) 3446, inhabiting 19 villages. The revenue is estimated at £950.

Wárâhi.—Native State in the Political Superintendency of Pálanpur, Bombay Presidency. It is bounded north by the Chadchat State, south by the salt desert of the Rann, east by the Rádhanpur State, and west by Chorár. Area, 330 square miles. Population (1881) 21,376. The territory of Wárâhi is flat and open, like Rádhanpur. The soil is sandy, black, and (toward the Rann) impregnated with salt. The first two kinds of soil produce one crop yearly of common grains;

while a large quantity of excellent wheat, as in Rádhanpur, is grown during the rainy season. A good deal of cotton is also cultivated. *Ghasia*, or self-produced salt, is found in large quantities. From April to May, and also in October and November, the heat is excessive. The common form of sickness is fever. Malek Isa, the founder of the family, came originally from Sind, about 425 years ago. According to the statement of the ruling family, they were compelled to quit Sind on account of the tyranny of its rulers. They gained possession of the Wárâhi Sub-division by driving out the Roma Musalmáns. The present chief is a minor, named Málik Jorawár Khán, a Ját Muhammadan, born in 1881. Estimated revenue of the State, £4000. There is 1 school, with 89 pupils.

Wárâhi.—Town in Gujarát, Bombay Presidency, capital of the Native State of Wárâhi; situated in lat. 23° 47′ 20″ N., and long. 71° 29′ 20″ E.

Warangal.—Ancient town in the Nizám's Dominions, or State of Haidarábád; 86 miles north-east of Haidarábád city. Lat. 17° 58′ N., long. 79° 40′ E. Population (1881) 3347. Karimábád (population 4565), situated a mile to the west, and Matwara (8815), a mile to north-west, formed in ancient times the suburbs of Warangal. Warangal was the ancient capital of the Hindu kingdom of Telingána, founded by the Narapati Andhras. Nothing of accurate historical record is known concerning this kingdom till 1303, when a Muhammadan invasion under Alá-ud-dín occurred. It failed to effect any conquest, the army being compelled to retreat after severe suffering. In 1309, another expedition under Málik Káfur succeeded in capturing Warangal fort after a long siege, and in compelling the Rájá to pay tribute. Fresh invasions occurred in the reign of Ghiyás-ud-dín Tughlak, when Warangal was again captured by the Muhammadans, but recovered by the Hindus in the reign of his successor, Muhammad Tughlak. The rising Muhammadan power of the Bahmanís in the Deccan soon came into collision with the Hindu State. In 1538, war ensued on a demand by the Warangal Rájá for the restitution of conquests; and this ultimately resulted in his further loss of Golconda, together with much booty, and of his son, who was taken prisoner and put to death by the Bahmaní king. Between 1512 and 1543, the remains of the Hindu kingdom were incorporated in the dominions acquired by Kuli Kutab Sháh, the founder of the Kutab Sháhí dynasty, with its capital at Golconda. Golconda in its turn fell before the Mughal armies of Aurangzeb in 1688.

Warangáon.—Town and municipality in Bhusáwal Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 20° 57′ N., and long. 75° 55′ 30″ E.; 8 miles east of Bhusáwal town. Population (1881) 4211. Municipal income (1883–84), £127; incidence of taxation, 5½d. per head. Formerly a town of considerable importance, it has

declined since the establishment of Bhusáwal. Warangáon was handed over to the British Government by Sindhia in 1861. It had previously passed through the hands of the Mughals, the Nizám, and the Peshwá. Post-office.

Wáráseoní.—Town and municipality in Burhá *tahsíl*, Balághát District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 3326, namely, Hindus, 2362; Kabírpanthís, 640; Muhammadans, 180; Jains, 76; and non-Hindu aborigines, 68. Municipal income (1882–83), £545, of which £458 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 9⅛d. per head.

Wárásinor.—Native State in Rewá Kántha, Bombay.—*See* BALASINOR.

Warbah (or *Bhawal*).—Petty State in the Khásí Hills, Assam. Population (1881) 555; revenue, £182, chiefly from royalties on lime-quarries. The presiding chief, whose title is *siem*, is named Baman Singh. The principal products are rice, *tezpát* or bay-leaves, black pepper, and lime.

Wárcha.—Small village and salt mine in Sháhpur District, Punjáb. The Wárcha mine is a large cave supported by pillars at irregular intervals. The seam worked is 20 feet thick. A portion of the mine was formerly worked by the Sikhs. Total out-turn for the four years ending 1883–84, 587,657 *maunds*, the out-turn in the last year being 190,987 *maunds*. Total duty realized during the same four years, £129,337, of which £37,066 was realized in 1883–84. An inspector has charge of the mine at Wárcha, and is also in charge of the Wárcha section of the salt range, which contains 40 guard posts at which are stationed 169 men. The annual cost of the mine and guarding establishment amounts to £2101 per annum. The miners are paid at the rate of 7s. 6d. per hundred *maunds* of salt excavated; about fifty families are employed.

Wardhá.—British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 18′ and 21° 21′ N. lat., and between 78° 4′ 30″ and 79° 15′ E. long. It forms a triangle with its apex towards the north-west; the base rests on Chándá District; the eastern side is bounded by Nágpur, while on the western side the river Wardhá separates it from Berar. Area, 2401 square miles. Population (1881) 387,221 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at WARDHA TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The north of the District consists of a hilly region, formed by the spurs projecting from the great Sátpurá chain. The hill ranges run generally in a south-easterly direction. For the most part they are rugged and stony. In summer time, a few shrubs appear on their sides; and after the rains they are covered with luxuriant grass, affording pasture to large herds of buffaloes and cattle. In the Ashtí

and Khandhálí *parganás*, however, many of the hills are clothed with young teak and other timber, and the valleys between are rich and fertile. In the north, a succession of *ghâts*—abrupt escarpments in the trap rock—mark the steps by which the country rises from the bed of the Wardhá to the confines of Nágpur. The best known are the *ghâts* of Talegáon, Chicholí, Dhámkúnd, and Thánegáon. The central cluster of hills, including the various peaks of Málegáon (1726 feet above sea-level), Nándgáon (1874 feet), and Jaitgarh (2086 feet, the highest point in Wardhá), forms the watershed of the District. From the north and west of this range, numerous small streams make their way towards the river Wardhá, while from the south and south-east the Dhám, the Bor, and the Asodá *nálá* flow down the length of the District in a south-easterly direction. But except the Wardhá, with its affluent the Waná, the District does not contain any river of importance. To the south, the country spreads out in an undulating plain, intersected by watercourses, and broken here and there by isolated hills rising abruptly from the surface. In general, the lowlands are well wooded, the commonest trees being the mango, tamarind, *nim*, *ber*, and *pípal*, with clumps of date-palms fringing the watercourses. In the *tahsíl* of Hinganghát, however, the country is singularly bare, except towards the east, where a tract of jungle extends.

The great sheet of trap which covers the Berars, and spreads as far as the coast of the Arabian Sea, underlies the whole of the District. The stratification is regular and continuous, and the angle of inclination generally small; and thus may be explained the flat tops of the hills, and the horizontal terraces which their sides present. The usual succession is black soil resting on nodular trap, between which and the underlying trap a fresh-water formation intervenes. The black soil varies in depth from 10 feet to a few inches, the average thickness being about 2 feet. It is generally found intermixed with nodular limestone, the exposed fragments of which are collected and burnt for building purposes. The fresh-water stratum may be traced on the plain of Hinganghát. At Girar, also, the hillside shows the fresh-water stratum in all its varieties, while the plain is strewn with curious zeolitic concretions, resembling nutmegs, which have issued from the soft rock beneath. Six centuries ago, the Musalmán saint Shaikh Khwájá Farid dwelt on the top of the hill; and the story runs that these concretions are the petrified cocoa-nuts of two travelling traders who mocked the holy man, on which he turned their whole stock-in-trade into stones. A colony of *fakírs* still reside on the summit.

Owing to the sameness of the geological formation, Wardhá has not any variety of mineral products. No ores are found, nor does this District seem destined, like Chándá, to be important for its coal-fields. The black basalt supplies good building-stone, and in a few

places quarries of flagstone have been opened. Of wild animals, the leopard, hyæna, wolf, jackal, and wild hog abound; the spotted deer, *nílgái*, and wild goat also inhabit the hills, while antelopes may be seen all over the plains. Bustards, partridges, quails, and rock-pigeons are numerous. Fish, on the other hand, are scarce. Snakes of all kinds, and large scorpions and centipedes, are common.

History.—According to tradition, the north-west portion of the District formed part of the dominions of Bhímak, King of the Vidarbha country, whose daughter married the god Krishna. The south-eastern portion was then inhabited by Gaulís, and belonged to a Pawan Rájá, a Kshattriya of the race of the Sun, who reigned over Paunár, Panní, and Pohuá. He possessed the philosopher's stone, so that instead of rent, his cultivators gave him the iron of their ploughs, which forthwith was changed into gold. As he kept no army, a feeling arose among the people of insecurity against foreign invasion. The Rájá pointed out to them that he had only to take a bundle of reeds and cut them into small pieces, and any enemy's army would be at once destroyed. His unbelieving subjects, to test his power, matched two bands in a fight in which blood was drawn. This, they informed the Rájá, was the work of an enemy's army. The Rájá asked them three times if they spoke the truth; and then, being a man of his word 'and of one wife,' he cut some reeds, and assured the deputation that the enemy were destroyed. On returning, they found that the bands which had fought had all lost their heads. On this the widows and orphans supplicated the Rájá, who graciously restored the dead men to life.

At length, Sayyid Sháh Kabír, a yet greater enchanter, drew near; and, learning that the Rájá could decapitate his foes from a distance, he took the precaution of removing his own head before approaching Paunár. The Rájá perceived that his rule was over, and sank with his wife into the deep waters of the Dhám, beneath Paunár fort. Since then the pool has formed the scene of various marvels. A herdsman, who grazed his cattle on the river bank, found that for twelve years a strange black cow fed among his herds. As he received no pay for looking after her, he at last asked her whose she was. The cow, thus interrogated, stepped into the pool; but the herdsman seized her tail and disappeared with her beneath the water. There he found a temple, from which came a stranger, who began to tether the cow. The herdsman demanded his hire, and was given some vegetable bulbs. These he rejected angrily, and seizing the cow's tail, rose with it to the surface. The next day he discovered to his vexation that the small fragment of the vegetable which he had retained had become pure gold. This pool was also one of those sacred waters which, on receiving an offering of rice, supply dishes for the villagers' entertainments.

Once, however, a sordid man omitted to return all the dishes; and since that day the pool has furnished no more.

Beyond these legends, Wardhá has no independent history. It was only separated in 1862 for administrative purposes from Nágpur District. Its history, therefore, will be found in the article NAGPUR. It may, however, be remarked that in the early years of the present century, Wardhá suffered greatly from the marauding Pindháris, who swept down on these rich plains from their camps in the Narbadá valley. From these times date the mud forts, found in nearly every village, which form a prominent object in most Wardhá landscapes.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Wardhá District at 343,485 persons. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 354,720. The last enumeration in 1881 returned the total population of Wardhá District at 387,221, showing an increase of 32,501, or 9·16 per cent., in nine years. The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 2401 square miles; number of towns 5, and of villages 903; number of houses, 92,233, namely, occupied 85,044, and unoccupied 7189. Total population, 387,221, namely, males 195,564, and females 191,657. Average density of population, 161 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, 0·38; persons per town or village, 426; houses per square mile, 35·4; persons per house, 4·55. Classified according to sex and age, there were in 1881—under 15 years, males 70,890, and females 70,941; total children, 141,831, or 36·6 per cent. of the District population: 15 years and upwards, males 124,674, and females 120,716; total adults, 245,390, or 63·4 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, the population is thus returned—Hindus, 328,523, or 84·8 per cent.; Muhammadans, 14,200, or 3·7 per cent.; Jains, 2356; Christians, 96; Kabírpanthís, 92; Sikhs, 4; Satnámís, 2; Jews, 8; Pársís, 7; and non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 41,933, or 10·8 per cent. The total aboriginal population by race as apart from religion is returned at 43,807, of whom 42,988 are Gonds. Of the higher Hindu castes, Bráhmans number 8589; Rájputs, 3081; Gosáins, 1518; Bháts, 1003; and Baniyás, 3696. The lower Hindu castes include the following—Kurmís, the principal cultivating class, and most numerous caste in the District, 80,907; Mahárs, 39,003; Telís, 37,577; Málís, 17,207; Mehrás, 14,220; Gawárí, 9736; Maráthás, a race rather than a caste, 8736; Koshtís, 7256; Bhoers, 7236; Barháis, 6496; Gadariás, 6155; Náis, 5506; Sonárs, 4083; Dhobís, 3937; Ahírs, 3835; Banjárás, 3677; Chamárs, 3058; Kallárs, 2898; Dhimárs, 2662; Kumbhárs, 2387; Baruís, 2319; and Darzís, 2257.

Urban and Rural Population.—Wardhá District contains five towns with a population exceeding five thousand, namely, WARDHA town

and civil station, 5816; HINGANGHAT, 9000; ARVI, 8072; ASHTI, 5245; and DEOLI, 5126. Total urban population, 33,259, or 8·6 per cent. of that of the whole District. The only municipalities are Wardhá, Hinganghát, Arví, and Deolí, with an aggregate municipal income in 1883–84 of £5056, of which £4094 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 3s. 3¼d. per head. The rural population of 353,962 are spread over 903 villages, of which 361 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 330 between two hundred and five hundred; 150 between five hundred and a thousand; 46 between one and two thousand; 11 between two and three thousand; and 5 between three and five thousand.

The male population of the District is thus classified in the Census of 1881 according to occupation:—(1) Professional and official class, 5433; (2) domestic and menial class, 1796; (3) commercial and trading class, including carriers, 3391; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 95,866; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including artisans, 26,428; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 56,162.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 2401 square miles, 1445 square miles are cultivated; while of the portion lying waste, 411 square miles are returned as cultivable, and 545 square miles as uncultivable waste. The most important crop of the District is cotton, which in 1883 covered an area of 210,546 acres. Wheat occupied 236,327 acres; other food-grains, 312,514 acres; and oil-seeds, 154,307 acres. Only 1793 acres are devoted to rice, and on 1484 acres tobacco was produced. The average prices of produce per cwt. were as follows:—Cotton, 13s.; wheat, 4s. 3d.; linseed, 9s. 6d.; rice, 7s. The breeding of cattle is carried on to a considerable extent on the rich pastures in the highlands to the north; but in summer, most of the herds are driven to the jungles of Mandlá or Chándá. The District is especially famous for its trotting bullocks, and also contains a fine breed of buffaloes. The sheep and goats, though numerous, are reckoned of inferior quality. The agricultural stock and implements in the District in 1883–84 were returned as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 216,457; horses, 357; ponies, 2375; donkeys, 3616; sheep and goats, 48,337; pigs, 1396; carts, 20,248; and ploughs, 19,535. In the north of the District, a little lac and some *tasar* cocoons are gathered, and the Gonds collect gum, wax, and honey; but the only valuable article of forest produce consists of the flowers from the *mahuá* trees, which abound in Wardhá.

Out of a total adult agricultural population in 1881 numbering 387,221, or 44·12 per cent. of the District population, landed proprietors numbered 4348; tenants holding at fixed rents or with a right of occupancy, 10,640; tenants-at-will, 14,951; assistants in home

cultivation, 25,681; agricultural labourers, 110,784; the remainder being made up of graziers, tenants of unspecified status, estate agents, etc. Area of cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult agriculturist, 7 acres. Of the total area of the District, 2401 square miles, 262 square miles are held revenue-free, leaving 2139 square miles for Government assessment. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied upon land, £54,727, or an average of 1s. 2¾d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £86,817, or an average of 1s. 9¼d. per cultivated acre. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suited for cotton, 2s. 3d.; for wheat, 2s. 7¼d.; for inferior grain, 2s. 4d.; for oil-seeds, 2s. 3d.; for tobacco, 5s. 4¼d. Skilled labourers in 1884 received 1s. 3½d. per diem; unskilled labourers, 4½d.

Commerce and Trade.—Cotton cloth forms the only local manufacture of importance, but cotton thread, blankets, gunny, and rope are also made. The greater part of the cloth is exported to Berar and to the Districts farther west. Since the completion of the railway to Bombay, a considerable trade has also sprung up in butter, either fresh or clarified, which is largely produced round Arví, and finds a sale in the Bombay market.

But by far the most important article exported from Wardhá is the raw cotton known as 'Hinganghát,' from the cotton mart of that name. The commercial celebrity of this brand has drawn to Hinganghát, for foreign export, much of the cotton produced in Eastern Berar, Nágpur, Chándá, and elsewhere; but deducting this, the produce of Wardhá alone averaged in 1881 about 30,000 bales of 400 lbs. each. During the past few years, a considerable trade has also sprung up in wheat, linseed, and hides. Much of the cotton produced in the District is consumed locally by the spinning and weaving mills at Hinganghát and Nágpur. A spinning mill containing 10,000 spindles, and giving employment to 400 hands, was erected at Hinganghát in 1881; and there are 4 steam cotton presses in the same town. The principal imports are salt, English piece-goods, hardware, and spices.

Wardhá District contains altogether 74 miles of roads of the second class, and 65 miles of railway. It possesses no means of communication by water. The black soil renders the task of making and maintaining the roads both difficult and expensive. Of the principal lines, the southern road between Nágpur and Haidarábád enters the District a little to the east of Sindí, and after traversing its south-eastern corner, passes into Chándá District at a point due south of Hinganghát. A branch road connects Hinganghát with the village of Jám, and acts as a feeder to the southern road, which otherwise would be of imperial rather than local importance. The internal traffic chiefly

takes the line of the Wardhá valley road, which unites the railway station of Pulgáon with the towns of Deolí and Hinganghát in the south, and Arví and Ashtí in the north, and traverses the whole length of the valley of the Wardhá. Of country tracks, the most important is the old road between Bombay and Nágpur. Throughout the District, the usual conveyances for persons or goods consist of various forms of light carts, drawn by the trotting bullocks for which Wardhá is famous. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway crosses the centre of the District, with stations at Pulgáon, Wardhá, Degair, Paonár, and Sindí. The Wardhá Valley State Railway runs from Wardhá to the Warorá coal-field in Chándá District, with stations within Wardhá District at Songám and Hinganghát.

Administration.—On the 1st August 1862, Wardhá was formed into a separate District of the Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1883–84, £84,134, of which the land yielded £51,437. Total cost of District officials and police, £22,019. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts, 9; magistrates, 13; maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 26 miles; average distance, 19 miles. Number of police, regular and town, 459 men, costing £5808, being 1 policeman to every 5·5 square miles and to every 894 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1883 was 49, of whom 4 were females. The total cost of the jails was £455. The number of Government or aided schools under Government inspection in 1883–84 was 71, attended by 4190 pupils. The Census of 1881 returned 4081 boys and 49 girls as under instruction, besides 8340 males and 78 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Wardhá bears an ill repute for rapid and violent variations in temperature. At the civil station the average temperature in the shade during 1876 was thus recorded:—May, highest reading 110° F., lowest 105°; July, highest 92°, lowest 74°; December, highest 81°, lowest 73°. No later returns, or any average thermometrical returns, are available. During the summer months a dry, hot wind blows steadily from the north-west. The rains generally open with a hurricane about the middle of June, and last till the end of September. The average rainfall at Wardhá town for a period of nineteen years ending 1881 is returned at 39·33 inches, thus distributed—January to May, 2·33 inches; June to September, 34·75 inches; and October to December, 2·25 inches. The rainfall at Arví town averages about 5 inches less than at Wardhá. The prevailing disease of the District is fever, especially in the months succeeding the rains. Cholera occasionally occurs; but since sanitary restrictions have been placed on the religious fairs at Jagannáth, Pachmarhí, and

Pandharpur, epidemics have been less frequently imported into the District. In 1883 the death-rate was returned at 41·57 per thousand, against an average of 35·67 per thousand for the previous five years. During the same year 5 charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 23,757 in-door and out-door patients. [For further information regarding Wardhá, see the *Central Provinces Gazetteer* by Mr. (now Sir Charles) Grant, pp. 512–519 (Nágpur, 1870). Also the *Settlement Report for Wardhá District*, by H. Rivett Carnac, Esq., B.C.S., from 1857 to 1866, published in 1867; the *Census Report of the Central Provinces* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Central Provinces Government.]

Wardhá. — Central *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Wardhá District, Central Provinces. Area, 803 square miles, with 2 towns and 318 villages; number of houses, 34,243. Population (1881) 155,485, namely, males 78,388, and females 77,097. Average density, 194 persons per square mile. Of the total area of the *tahsíl*, 34 square miles are held revenue-free, leaving 769 square miles assessed for Government revenue. Total adult agricultural population, male and female, 66,826, or 42·98 per cent. of the population of the *tahsíl*. Average cultivated and cultivable area available for each adult agriculturist, 6 acres. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied upon land, £22,434, or an average of 1s. 1¾d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £38,411, or an average of 1s. 10¾d. per cultivated acre. In 1884, Wardhá *tahsíl* contained (including head-quarters) 5 civil and 11 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 5; and outpost stations, 11; strength of regular police, 93 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 884.

Wardhá. — Chief town of Wardhá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 45′ N., long. 78° 40′ E. Built since May 1866, in wide and regular streets, on the site of the old village of Pálakwárí. Population (1881) 5816, namely, Hindus, 4633; Muhammadans, 807; Jains, 196; Christians, 55; non-Hindu aborigines, 109; Jews, 8; Pársís, 6; and 'others,' 2. Municipal income (1882–83), £868, of which £649 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 2¾d. per head. The jail, police lines, public garden, court-houses, etc., occupy a gentle slope, east of the native town. The drainage is good; and several miles of avenues of trees have been laid out around the town. The town contains two large steam cotton presses, and many Bombay cotton merchants have branches or agents here. A metalled storage and weighing yard has been provided from the local funds, which are chiefly derived from a tax on all shops opened at the *bázár* held every Sunday. The supply of cotton is increasing, and amounts to as much as 500 bales per day during the height of the season, which lasts from November to March. Wardhá has a good

Anglo-vernacular town school; and is a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.

Wardhá.—River rising in the Sátpura Hills between Nágpur and Betúl in the Central Provinces. It flows south-east, parting Nágpur, Wardhá, and Chándá Districts of the Central Provinces from Berar and the Nizám's Dominions. It receives the Paingangá, its chief affluent, in lat. 20° 6′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 10′ E., on the right bank, about 190 miles from its source; and a little above Chándá, after a course of 254 miles, it unites with the Waingangá, forming the Pranhítá river, which ultimately falls into the Godávari. The bed of the Wardhá is rocky and deep, and in the monsoon the river becomes a furious torrent. In the hot months it is nearly everywhere fordable. The most noted rapid is near Soit, a village in Chándá, where in the cold season the river is 80 yards wide and of great depth. Suddenly it plunges through a rift of rock, and, narrowing to a few feet, foams down a steep incline, and then falls into a broad, quiet pool beneath. This rapid is best seen about the middle of October. At Pulgáon, in Wardhá District, the Great Indian Peninsula Railway crosses the river on an iron bridge, constructed of fourteen sixty-foot girders, resting on masonry piers. The valley of the Wardhá, famous for its cotton, is a rich tract lying between the river and a range of hills, which recede as Wardhá District is entered. In Chándá District, coal has been discovered at several points, notably at Warorá. Throughout the river's course, its banks are crowned by many old temples and tombs. A large fair takes place every November at Deulwárá, lasting about three weeks.

Wardwán (or *Maru Wardwán*).—A long and narrow valley, on the eastern side of the Kashmír valley, Northern India, from which it is separated by a very lofty range of mountains. Its direction is nearly north and south, with a length of about 40 miles, and an average breadth of a quarter of a mile. It is bounded by high and rugged mountains covered with perpetual snow, which almost entirely exclude the sun from its lower portions. It is intersected by the Wardwán river, which flows southward to join the Chenáb, and receives in its course several tributaries from numerous minor valleys, called *nais*, which open on each side of it. The climate of Wardwán is rigorous, and rain or snow falls throughout the greater part of the year; it contains several thinly-populated villages, whose inhabitants derive a bare subsistence from its scanty products. The valley is, however, of interest to the sportsman on account of its ibex grounds, for which it is celebrated.

Wári.—The chief town of SAWANTWARI, a Native State in the Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 15° 54′ 25″ N., and long. 73° 51′ 33″ E. The town is also known by the names of Sáwantwári and

Sundarwári, that is, the 'Beautiful Garden.' Situated about 19 miles west of the base of the Sahyádris, and 17 miles east of Vengurla. Founded by Phond Sáwant in 1670, the town, almost buried in palm groves, stretches round the border of a lake, over rocky uneven ground seamed by ravines and watercourses. Well-wooded hills rise on all sides, the highest (Wári peak on the west) being 1200 feet above the sea. Except on Saturdays, the market day, when numbers come in from the neighbouring villages, Wári is a place of little trade. The lake, a beautiful sheet of water hemmed in by well-wooded hills and girt with a belt of palm, jack, and mango trees is known as the 'Pearl lake,' Motí Taláo. Covering about 31 acres, with a mean depth of 6 feet, it was, in 1874, at a cost of about £2000, improved by replacing the old retaining dam by a cut-stone wall 204 yards long secured by hydraulic cement, with, at each end, iron gates worked by rack and pinion. On the east shore of the lake, separated from it by a roadway and sloping bank, stands a ruined stone and mud fort, surrounded on the north-east and south by a ditch, dry in the fair season. The fort is irregular in shape, 350 yards by 150, and consists of roofed loopholed towers and bastioned curtains. Schools, library, post-office, and clock tower. Population (1881) 8584, namely, Hindus, 6558; Muhammadans, 1217; Christians, 762; and Jains, 47.

Warnolimoti.—Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1 square mile. The chief is named Ráhtor Pithibhai. The revenue is estimated at £41; tribute is paid of £10, 2s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Warnolináni.—Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1 square mile. The revenue is estimated at £30; tribute is paid of £2, 10s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Warnolmal.—Petty State in Pandu Mehwás, Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 3½ square miles, containing 5 villages. There are two chiefs. The revenue is estimated at £70; tribute is paid of £8, 10s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Warod (*Wadod*).—Petty State in the Jhálawár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 3 villages, with 1 proprietor. Area, 14 square miles. Population (1881) 1590. The revenue is estimated at £2100; tribute is paid of £125, 4s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £27, 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Warod (*Wadod*).—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 2 separate shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 2 square miles. Population (1881) 877. The revenue is estimated at £220; tribute is paid of £94 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £16, 4s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Warorá.—North-western *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Chándá District, Central Provinces, lying between 19° 58′ and 20° 43′ N. lat., and between 78° 52′ and 79° 40′ E. long. Area, 1281 square miles, with 1 town and 419 villages; number of houses, 29,549. Population (1881) 136,128, namely, males 69,198, and females 66,930; average density, 106 persons per square mile. Of the total area of the *tahsíl*, 418 square miles are held revenue-free, leaving 863 square miles assessed for Government revenue. Of this, 404 square miles are returned as under cultivation, 394 square miles as cultivable but not under tillage, and 65 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total adult agricultural population, male and female, 54,852, or 40·29 per cent. of the whole population. Average cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult agriculturist, 10 acres. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied upon the land, £9361, or an average of 8⅝d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £13,754, or an average of 1s. 0⅜d. per cultivated acre. In 1884, Warorá *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 3 police stations (*thánás*), and 13 outposts (*chaukís*); strength of regular police, 129 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 236.

Warorá.—*Parganá* in the north-west of Chándá District, Central Provinces, comprising 148 villages. Area, 415 square miles. The river Sír traverses a large portion of this *parganá* from north to south, and the Viraí flows along the north-eastern corner. The country generally is a rolling plain of black loam, dotted here and there with sandstone hills. Chief products—cotton, wheat, *joár*, oil-seeds, gram, and rice. The population is mainly Maráthá. The principal towns are WARORA, MANDHERI, and SEGAON.

Warorá.—Town and municipality in Chándá District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Warorá *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 20° 14′ N., and long. 79° 2′ E., 32 miles north-west of Chándá town. Population (1881) 8022, namely, Hindus, 6606; Muhammadans, 877; Jains, 144; Christians, 80; and non-Hindu aborigines, 315. Municipal income (1882–83), £1310, of which £941 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 10⅝d. per head. Warorá is the second commercial town in Chándá District. At the weekly market, a good trade in cotton, grain, groceries, country cloth, and salt is carried on. The town has a *tahsíl*, town school for boys, girls' school, post-office, police station-house, *sarái* (native inn), travellers' bungalow, large tank, camping ground, etc. The colliery near the town supplies the best coal hitherto found in the Central Provinces. During the year 1883–84, the out-turn amounted to 19,000 tons; but larger quantities have been raised, and 3000 tons a month have been supplied to the Railway Company. A line of State railway from the

Nágpur branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway runs from Wardhá to the Warorá coal-field.

Warsora (*Wursora*).—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. The amount of land under cultivation is estimated at 4650 *bighás*. The chief is Thakúr Kisor Singhjí, a Chaora Rájput. The family holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption; but in matters of succession the rule of primogeniture is followed. Population (1881) 4051, dwelling in 6 villages. Estimated revenue, £1208; tribute is paid of £158, 5s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wartal.—Town in Kaira District, Bombay Presidency, the head-quarters of the Swámínáráyan sect of Hindus, and the residence of their high priest or Mahárájá. A large sum of money has been expended of late on the buildings, the lecture hall being specially fine. Situated about 1½ mile west of Borihavi station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. Wartal is a place of pilgrimage.

Warúd.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar.—*See* BARUR.

Wasan Sewada.—Petty State in Sankheda Mehwás, Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 5½ square miles, containing 7 villages. The chief is named Ráhtor Kalubawa. The revenue is estimated at £517; tribute is paid of £115 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wasan Virpur. — Petty State in Sankheda Mehwás, Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 12½ square miles, containing 2 villages. The chief is named Daima Jitabawa. The revenue is estimated at £1000; tribute is paid of £43, 4s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Washermanpetta.—Suburb of MADRAS CITY.

Wasna.—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency. The amount of land under cultivation is estimated at 5367 acres. The chief is named Thakúr Takhat Singh, a Ráhtor Rájput. His family follows the rule of primogeniture, but holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption. Population (1881) 4794. Estimated revenue, £1200; tribute is paid of £310, 17s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The cantonment of Sádra, the head-quarters of the Mahi Kántha Political Agency, is situated within the limits of Sádra, a village in this State. For the land so taken up the Thákur receives from the British Government a yearly ground-rent of £26.

Waso. — Town in the Pitlád Sub-division of the Baroda State; situated within the limits of the British District of Kaira, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 40′ N., long. 72° 48′ E.; on the Mahi river, where the stream is fordable. Population (1881) 7014, namely, males 3948, and females 3066. The scene of the suicide of Rustam Alí of Ahmadnagar when betrayed by his ally the Gáekwár. Weaving and printing of cotton cloth are the chief industries. Magistrate's court; post-office.

Wassawád.—Petty State in the Sorath *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 4 villages, with 8 separate shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 68 square miles. Population (1881) 3833. The revenue is estimated at £2000; tribute is paid of £76, 12s. to the British Government.

Wásurná.—Petty Bhíl State in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Watrap (*Vattirayiruppu*).—Town in Srivilliputtúr *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 9° 38′ N., and long. 77° 41′ E., in a fertile valley on the Madura boundary, about 6 miles north of Srivilliputtúr. Population (1881) 6053, namely, Hindus, 5928; Christians, 74; and Muhammadans, 51; occupying 1368 houses. Formerly a place of considerable iron-smelting industry.

Wavri Dharwála.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WAORI DHARWALA.

Wavri Wachhani.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WAORI WACHHANI.

Wawánya.—Port in Morvi State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° N., long. 70° 43′ E.; situated about 24 miles north-west of Morvi. Wawánya town is situated about 4 miles from its port, which is on a small creek flowing into the Gulf of Cutch. Though the trade is sedulously fostered by the *darbár*, it remains small. Population (1881) 1690.

Wazírábád.—Northern *tahsíl* of Gujránwála District, Punjab; consisting for the most part of a comparatively fertile tract, stretching inward from the bank of the river Chenáb. Area, 455 square miles, with 252 towns and villages, 29,607 houses, and 35,837 families. Population (1881) 169,568, namely, males 90,896, and females 78,672. Average density of the population, 373 persons per square mile. Muhammadans number 135,211; Hindus, 29,654; Sikhs, 4610; Jains, 47; and Christians, 46. Of the 252 towns and villages, 148 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 66 from five hundred to a thousand; 23 from one to two thousand; 13 from two to five thousand; and 2 upwards of five thousand. The average area under cultivation during the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82 was 226 square miles, or 144,882 acres, the principal crops being—wheat, 59,424 acres; barley, 33,307 acres; *joár*, 9062 acres; Indian corn, 6006 acres; rice, 2512 acres; cotton, 8478 acres; sugar-cane, 6556 acres; and vegetables, 6829 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £17,215. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, *munsif*, and 2 honorary magistrates, who preside over 3 civil and 3 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 105 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 280.

Wazírábád.—Town and municipality in Gujránwála District, Punjab,

and head-quarters of Wazírábád *tahsíl;* situated on the Grand Trunk Road and Northern State Railway, 21 miles north of Gujránwála town, in lat. 32° 27′ N., and long. 74° 10′ E. Population (1881) 16,462, namely, males 8795, and females 7667. Muhammadans number 10,824; Hindus, 5328; Sikhs, 274; Jain, 1; and Christians, 35. Number of houses, 3109. Municipal income (1883–84), £1860, or an average of 2s. 3d. per head. The town lies in the low country north of the high bank which bounds the narrower valley of the Chenáb, about a mile from the present bed of the river. The Phalku rivulet flows north of the town. Wazírábád has only recently risen to importance, and is said to have been founded by Wazír Khán, in the time of Sháh Jahán. It is first heard of in connection with Gurbaksh Singh, a retainer of Charrat Singh, from whom it passed into the hands of the Maháráját Ranjít Singh. Under his rule, it became the head-quarters of General Avitabile, who built a completely new town, in the shape of a parallelogram, and surrounded it with an irregular brick wall. A broad and straight *bázár* runs from end to end, crossed at right angles by minor streets, also of considerable width, forming a great contrast to the tortuous *culs-de-sac* so common in towns of purely native construction. The houses are chiefly built of sun-dried or kiln-burnt bricks.

Under British rule, Wazírábád became for a time the chief town of a District, including a part of Gujránwála and Siálkot, together with portions of Lahore and Gurdáspur. On the District being broken up in 1852, Wazírábád lapsed to the position of the head-quarters of a *tahsíl.* The opening of the Punjab Northern State Railway, and the extension of a branch line from Wazírábád to Siálkot, have immensely added to the commercial importance of the town, which is now only second to the District head-quarters at Gujránwála. The Chenáb river is spanned opposite Wazírábád by the Alexandra railway bridge, one of the finest engineering works of the kind in India, which was opened by the Prince of Wales in 1876. A cantonment formerly existed 6 miles west of the town, but it has been abandoned, and is now overgrown. An important religious fair is held at the suburb of Dhonkal, at which much business is transacted. Extensive boat-building works; timber is floated down the Chenáb to Múltán. Manufacture of small articles in steel and iron. *Tahsíl, thánd,* staging bungalow, *sarái,* post-office, dispensary, Scotch Mission, high school.

Waziri Lag.—Tract of country in Kángra District, Punjab; one of the three minor Sub-divisions of KULU Proper, including the whole region of Kúlu west of the Beas (Biás), traversed by the Sarvari river. Area, 178 square miles.

Waziri Parol.—Tract of country in Kángra District, Punjab; the second of the three minor Sub-divisions of Kúlu. Includes the upper

valley of the Beas (Biás) down to the junction of the Phijrám river on the right bank, and the Párbatí on the left; together with the right side of the Párbatí valley from its junction with the Beas to its confluence with the Malána. Area, 496 square miles.

Wazíri Rúpi.—Tract of country in Kángra District, Punjab; the third of the three minor Sub-divisions of Kúlu. Includes the country east of the Beas (Biás) between the rivers Párbatí and Sainj. Area, 677 square miles.

We-la-taung.—Village in the Naaf township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma, lying on the bank of the Myo-thit stream. Total population (1878) 2721; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881.

Wellington (or *Jakatála*).—Hill station and military cantonment in the Nílgiris District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 11° 22′ N., and long. 76° 50′ E. Jakatála Hill, a spur running to the south-east from Doddabetta, or middle range of mountains, about 1½ mile from Coonoor (Kunúr) and 9 miles from Utakamand, is 6100 feet above sea-level, well sheltered, partially exposed to the monsoons. Population (1881) 1715, inhabiting 327 houses.

Wellington is the principal military sanitarium of Madras, with a handsome range of barracks, built in 1857. The climate, although only 11 degrees from the equator, is most salubrious, temperate, and invigorating. The thermometer seldom rises in the shade above 75° F., and throughout the cold months the days are clear and bracing. The mornings are always refreshing; and if the character and time of the setting in of the south-west monsoon be regular, the months of the middle part of the year are pleasant and healthy. The average mean temperature for the eight years ending 1881 was 60·9° F., ranging from 54·7° F. mean temperature for January to 65·5° F. mean temperature for May. The average annual rainfall for the five years ending 1881 was 45·09 inches. The station is planted throughout with numerous ornamental trees, which afford shelter and add to its beauty. The intersecting valleys, sides of the hills, and plateaux possess a rich soil, the result of sub-tropical forest growth, producing luxuriant vegetation, where almost all European vegetables thrive—onions, cabbage, cauliflower, beans, tomatoes, peas, lettuce, beetroot, khol-khol, carrots, sweet potatoes, etc. As many as three or four crops of potatoes have been raised during one year. Fruits of all kinds grow luxuriantly, particularly oranges, peaches, the wild gooseberry, red and white raspberry, Brazil cherry, limes, and citrons.

Weltur.—Village in Umrer *tahsíl*, Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2066, namely, Hindus, 2028; Muhammadans, 32; and Jains, 6.

Wer.—Town in the State of Bhartpur, Rájputána; situated about 24

miles south-west of Bhartpur town. Population (1881) 7210, namely, Hindus 6067, and Muhammadans 1143. Considerable annual fair and religious gathering.

Werni.—Village in Mahában *tahsíl*, Muttra District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 25′ 35″ N., and long. 77° 52′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 3664. A purely agricultural village, with markets on Tuesdays and Saturdays.

Western Dwárs.—Tract of country in Jalpaiguri District, Bengal; annexed at close of the Bhután war of 1865.—*See* DWARS, WESTERN; also JALPAIGURI DISTRICT.

Western Ghâts.—Mountain range in Madras Presidency.—*See* GHATS.

Western Jumna.—Canal in the Punjab.—*See* JUMNA.

Western Málwá Agency.—Group of Native States in Central India.—*See* MALWA.

Wihár.—Village in Múl *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2006, namely, Hindus, 1806; Muhammadans, 24; and non-Hindu aborigines, 176.

Win-ba-daw.—Creek in Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim, Lower Burma, which joins the Sit-taung river at Win-ba-daw village. Communicates during the rains with the numerous streams in the large plains south of Sit-taung and Kyaik-to; and at this season forms a portion of the main route for country boats to Maulmain from Pegu and Rangoon, and from the towns on the Sit-taung. Spanned at Win-ba-daw village by a wooden bridge.

Win-ba-daw.—Village in Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; situated at the mouth of the Win-bá-daw creek, and on the left bank of the Sit-taung river. Chief halting-place for boats passing up the Sit-taung. Population above 1000. Seat of a large trade in grain.

Wohora.—Petty State in Sankheda Mehwás, Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 3¼ square miles, containing 4 villages. The revenue is estimated at £650; tribute is paid of £85, 4s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wontimetta.—Town in Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency.—*See* VONTIMITTA.

Wudnera.—Town in Amráotí District, Berar.—*See* BADNERA.

Wulúr.—Lake in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Northern India; the largest sheet of water in the valley, formed by an expansion of the river Jehlam (Jhelum). The centre lies in lat. 34° 20′ N., and long. 74° 37′ E. Length from east to west, 10 miles; breadth from north to south, 12 miles. Wulúr is enclosed on the east and north by very lofty mountains whose sides are comparatively bare of trees, and slope gently down to its margin. The space between the foot of the mountains and the edge

of the lake varies from a few hundred yards to a mile or more, according to the height of the water; but it is always greater on the northern than on the eastern side. Wulúr is celebrated for its picturesque beauty. Contains a small island, Lanka, with extensive ruins of an ancient Buddhist temple. Subject to violent squalls.

Wulusna.—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WALASNA.

Wún.—British District in the Chief Commissionership of Berar, lying between 19° 46′ and 20° 42′ N. lat., and between 77° 26′ and 79° 10′ E. long. Bounded on the north and west by Amráotí and Básim Districts; on the south by the Nizám's Dominions; and on the east by Wardhá and Chándá Districts of the Central Provinces. Area, 3907 square miles; population (1881) 392,102 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of WUN.

Physical Aspects. — The greater part of Wún District consists of a wild and hilly country, formed by offshoots from the Ajanta chain, which runs from west to east across the south of Berar. Two ranges may be distinguished in this District. The first crosses the boundary near Nairat, runs easterly for 57 miles to Baundarpur, and then turning to the south, terminates in an elevation of 944 feet. On one of its numerous spurs the civil station is situated, 1583 feet above sea-level. The second range enters Wún at its western extremity, near Mangrol, splitting into two ridges, of which one runs north-east for 35 miles towards Dabri, attaining a height of 1585 feet; while the other takes a south-easterly direction, and after rising near Warrandali to 1921 feet above sea-level, the highest point in the District, dwindles away till it ceases near Warúr, after a total length of 66 miles. The principal rivers, the Wardhá and the Paingangá, bound the District on the east and south, uniting at its south-east corner, near the village of Jágod. Along the bank of the Wardhá lies a stretch of open and highly cultivated country, which contrasts with the broken wilderness to the south and west. The Paingangá carries off nearly all the drainage of the District. Its chief affluents are the Aran, Wághári, and Kúni.

The hill ranges are formed of trap; and trappean rocks cover the whole area of the District, with an underlying series of beds of shale or slate, limestone, and sandstone. At Wanjra, 5 miles north of Wún town, a small hill is composed of pinkish limestone in thin beds. West of Wún, the limestone continues, varying in colour from buff to dark grey, and containing chert, which passes into jasper in tolerably regular layers. The same general characters continue farther to the southward; and fine sections of these rocks may be seen in the bed of the Paingangá. Coal has been found in seams of considerable thickness throughout a wide area in the valley of the Wardhá; and excellent iron-ore abounds in the south of the District. Near Wún town there is a fine silicious

sand, besides clays and ochres, and soapstone of the best quality. In the open country along the Wardhá river, the soil consists of the black loam known as *regar*.

Among the valleys between the hills, fertile strips of land occur; but the hills themselves are bare, or clothed only with dwarf teak or small jungle. The heights near Wún town, however, produce a large growth of bamboos, and elsewhere small bamboos are found in the ravines. But nature has not been bountiful to this region. On all sides the horizon is bounded by long sweeping hill ridges, enclosing undulating valleys; and though here and there patches of cultivation peep out, the shapeless flat-topped hills, with their blackish barren rock and their scanty and stunted trees, render the general aspect of the country gloomy and desolate. Tigers and leopards abound in the District, especially about the Wághári river, where the pools formed in the rocky bed attract them during the hot weather. These animals prove most destructive to human life; during the three years ending 1870, a single leopard killed no fewer than 63 persons. Bison have been shot in the east of the District; and *sámbhar* and *chitál* deer are found in the hills and ravines. Bears are numerous, and will frequently attack cutters of wood and herders of cattle; and *nílgái* and wild hog cause great ravages among the crops. Antelopes are rarely seen, except in the valley of the Wardhá. Hyænas, wolves, jackals, porcupines, and foxes abound; and small game is plentiful all over the District.

History.—Wún District has never formed the seat of an independent power. In early times, it appears to have been subject either to the ancient Hindu Rájás of Warangal, or to the semi-independent princes who ruled at Ellichpur. At the end of the 13th century, the Muhammadans invaded the Deccan; and Wún, with the rest of Berar, came under the sway of the Bahmaní kings. Under this fierce but vigorous line, Wún appears to have prospered, in spite of the frequent forays of the wild tribes across the Wardhá. Towards the close of the 15th century, the Imád Sháhí princes took advantage of the collapse of the Bahmaní dynasty to assert the freedom of Berar, and for ninety years maintained a precarious independence at Ellichpur. Their tottering power was assailed by constant war; and during this time the Gond chiefs of Chándá gathered strength, and succeeded in annexing the open tracts along the Wardhá. The rest of Wún District was commanded by the rival princes into whose hands the stronghold of Máhur successively fell.

By the beginning of the 17th century, the country had been included in the Mughal Empire. The long and wasting wars carried on by Aurangzeb gave rise to fiscal exactions, from which the whole of Berar suffered; and the reverses of the Emperor afforded to Bakht Buland

of Deogarh an opportunity, which he did not fail to seize, of ravaging the rich lowlands on both sides of the Wardhá. Towards the end of the century, the Maráthás swarmed into Berar; and in 1724, the decisive battle was fought which gave to the Nizám the sovereignty over the country. But though the authority of this potentate was always admitted, all real power speedily passed into the hands of the Bhonsla family. Wún District was the scene of the early rivalry between Raghují Bhonsla, the founder of the Nágpur line, and his kinsman Kánojí. It was at Bhám, on the top of a small plateau overlooking the Aran river, that Raghují had a divine intimation of the bright future that lay before him; and it was from Bhám that, by a secret and solitary flight to Deogarh, he escaped assassination at the hands of Kánojí and his son Ráyaljí. The ruins of large stone buildings spread over a wide area, shaded by clumps of trees still fresh and beautiful, recall the numerous army that in those troubled times followed Raghují's standard. But the palaces are now deserted or tenanted only by bears and tigers. The contest with Kánojí ended in 1734, when Raghují captured his rival at Mandár, a small village to the south of Wún town. Eleven years later, Raghují, then firmly seated in Nágpur, wrested Wún *parganá* from Chándá, to which power it had fallen during the confusion of recent years, and afterwards annexed Chándá itself. The struggles in which the Nágpur Rájá, the Nizám, and the Peshwá were involved during the rest of the 18th century did not directly affect Wún District; but on the 2nd April 1818, the Peshwá, when retreating towards Chándá to effect a junction with Apá Sáhib, was hemmed in near the confluence of the Paingangá and the Wardhá, and signally defeated by the British forces under Colonel Scott and Colonel Adams. During all these disorders, the fertile lowlands along the Wardhá suffered severely from the depredations of the wild Bhíls and of the Pindárís. In 1848, Wún was disturbed by a man, who claimed to be Apá Sáhib, the former Rájá of Nágpur. The pretender succeeded in taking the field with about 4000 men; but he was at length defeated and captured by Brigadier Hampton in June 1849. In 1853, Berar, including Wún District, was assigned by the Nizám to the British Government. The District was undisturbed during the Mutiny of 1857.

Population.—The Census of 1867 returned the population of Wún at 323,689 persons, on an area of 3957, or according to the most recent and accurate survey, 3907 square miles. The Census of 1881 disclosed on the same area a population of 392,102, occupying 71,585 houses in 1139 villages. Number of unoccupied houses, 4451. Average number of persons per village, 344; persons per occupied house, 5·48. The average density of population throughout the District was 100·35 persons to the square mile; but the rich lowlands along the river

Wardhá support a more dense population, while the hilly region is in some parts totally uninhabited. Thus, the Darwha *táluk* maintains 125·03 persons per square mile; while the Kolápur *táluk* has only 73·04. Classified according to sex, there were in the District—males 201,491, and females 190,611; proportion of males, 51·4 per cent. of the population. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 79,309, and girls 76,683; total children, 155,992, or 39·8 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 122,182, and females 113,928; total adults, 236,110, or 60·2 per cent.

The religious division showed the following results:—Hindus, 335,787; non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 37,252; Muhammadans, 17,031; Jains, 1817; Christians, 127; Sikhs, 85; and Pársis, 3.

According to caste, the Hindus were divided thus—Kunbís (cultivators), 92,134; Mhárs (depressed caste), 33,554; Banjárás (carriers), 21,282; Málís (gardeners), 16,974; Telís (oil-pressers), 12,526; Dhangars (shepherds), 11,708; Wanís or Baniyás (traders), 9611; Goalís (cowherds), 9306; Bráhmans (priests), 5791; Bhois (fishermen), 5788; Sutárs (carpenters), 4878; Mhangs (depressed caste), 4665; Mahalís or Napíts (barbers), 4646; Dhobís (washermen), 3644; Kallals (liquor distillers), 3594; Lohars (ironsmiths), 3478; Beldárs (masons, builders), 3173; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 3003; Koshtís (weavers), 2939; Rájputs, 2894; Hajjams (barbers), 2427; Chamárs (leather-working caste), 2421; Waddars, 2309; Kolís (cultivators), 2247; Rangarís (dyers), 2110; Kumbhárs (potters), 2108; Baruís (betul-leaf gardeners), 2080; Vidurs (writers), 1807; Gosawis, 1663; Simpis (tailors), 1516; and 'others,' 59,501.

The non-Hindu or aboriginal tribes by race, as apart from religion, were thus divided—Gonds, 42,139; Kolanis, 12,094; Andhs, 10,704; Pardhans, 9967; Bhíls, 1135; Lajhars, 90; Korkus, 50; and 'others,' 1.

The Hindu peasantry constitute a quiet, home-loving people, uncouth in their manners, but fairly industrious. Little beauty or elegance shows itself among their women, who lead a laborious life both in the house and in the field. In Wún District, the Banjáras form two distinct tribes, the Chárans and the Mathúras, while the mendicants are called Dháris. These last practise circumcision. Among the Banjáras, the men differ but little in their costume from the people of the District; but the women distinguish themselves by their ivory ornaments, and by the beautiful embroidery worked with their own needles on their skirts and bodices. For the most part, the Banjáras are hardy. Their bearing is frank and independent; but when intoxicated, they become lawless, and frequently commit violent crimes. Though conforming to the religious observances of the Hindus, they do not permit their daughters

to marry before puberty. When ripe for wedlock, the young girl is not allowed to sleep on a bed, and for a month after marriage, the bride appears veiled before the rest of the community. In civil matters, the Banjáras adjudicate their disputes among themselves in preference to resorting to courts of law.

The Gonds in Wún District are distinguished into tribes, which are again divided into *gotras*, each member of which bears the same name. They have also a religious classification, according to the number of gods they worship. The primitive method of winning a wife by capture still survives in a modified form in the custom of exogamy, which prevails also among the Hindu population, but is practised in the most marked form by the Gonds. Not only may no Gond man marry a Gond woman belonging to the same *gotra*, or sept; but even if the lovers are of different *gotras*, marriage between them is unlawful if they worship the same number of gods.

The Muhammadan population consisted of — Shaikhs, 11,789; Patháns, 2704; Sayyids, 849; Mughals, 168; Borahs, 7; and 'others,' 1514. According to sect, Sunnís number 16,997; Shiás, 20; and Wahábís, 14.

Of the 127 Christians, 70 were returned as Episcopalians, and 50 as Roman Catholics, while 7 were unspecified. Divided by race, there were — 16 Europeans or Americans, 58 Eurasians, and 53 native converts, namely, 47 Roman Catholics and 6 Episcopalians.

The language spoken in the District is Maráthí; but in the south, the soft and musical Telugu prevails. The hill tribes retain their own dialects.

Division into Town and Country.—The population of Wún District is principally rural. In 1881, the agricultural population amounted to 277,336, or 70·731 per cent. of the total population. The District contains no town of importance. WUN, the head-quarters, is a pretty little town, which in 1881 contained 4207 inhabitants, occupying 984 houses. Kalam and Bhám were once places of some importance; Bhám, which was long deserted, is now being repopulated, but Kalam is decayed. The place next in size to Wún is Dárwa; and the petty trading towns of Digras, Ner, Kotah, and Babulgáon may also be mentioned. The District contains no municipality. Of the 1139 villages in Wún District in 1881, 507 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 410 between two and five hundred; 164 between five hundred and one thousand; 41 between one and two thousand; 11 between two and three thousand; and 6 between three and five thousand.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 divided the male population of Wún District into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members

of the learned professions, 4814; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers, 2117; (3) commercial class, including all bankers, merchants, and carriers, 2501; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 99,488; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 20,035; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 72,536.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3907 square miles in 1882–83, 1913 square miles were cultivated, while of the portion lying waste, 627 square miles were returned as cultivable in the Administration Report, while the Census of 1881 returns the cultivable area at 1190 square miles; 2524 acres, chiefly of rice land and ground devoted to garden produce, were irrigated. The husbandman follows a primitive system of rotation of crops, and employs manure, though to no great extent, as most of the dung is required for fuel. *Joár* (Sorghum vulgare) is the grain most cultivated, and in the year 1882–83 occupied 440,098 acres. Rice was grown on 3128 acres, linseed on 90,214, wheat on 75,557, cotton on 260,426, gram on 32,808, *túr* (Cajanus indicus) on 65,647, *til* (Sesamum indicum) on 65,451, tobacco on 2571, castor-oil seed on 9054, lac on 5320, hemp on 864, *urd* (Phaseolus Mungo) on 332, sugar-cane on 281, and other products on 11,459; total, 1,060,210 acres. The District yields the usual forest produce, such as gum, lac, *mahuá* berries, the dye called *behera*, the *bel* fruit, useful for its astringent properties, and honey of a very fine description. The favourite dye called *al* is planted, and not found in a wild state; *san* or hemp is also sown, and finds a ready sale among the Banjáras.

The District contains no good breed of horses. Cattle are both bred and imported. The larger variety are well suited for the plough, while the smaller breed resemble the trotting bullocks of Wardhá District in the Central Provinces. The agricultural stock was returned in 1882–83 as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 358,909; buffaloes, 41,570; ponies, 3179; horses, 233; donkeys, 1569; sheep and goats, 69,433; pigs, 1437; and camels, 25; carts, 19,883; and ploughs, 25,997.

Of 94,971 male agriculturists, 26,498 were returned as registered occupiers in 1881–82. The prevailing system of tenure is the *ráyatwári*; and since the assignment to the British Government, the right of occupancy has been respected, while cultivation has been encouraged by the offer of waste land on advantageous terms. Exceptional tenures are those of *jágírdárs*, to whom former Governments have granted villages rent-free, either for maintenance or as endowments of temples; and the *pálampat* tenure, under which the holder and the Government share the revenue of villages in fixed proportions.

The rent rates in 1882–83 per acre for the different qualities of land

are returned as follows:—Land suited for *joár*, 1s. 1d.; oil-seeds, 10½d.; wheat, 1s. 5¾d.; cotton, 1s. 1d.; tobacco, 1s. 7¾d.; rice, 2s. 5½d.; gram, 1s. 3d. Average produce per acre—cotton, cleaned, 46 lbs.; wheat, 738 lbs.; oil-seeds, 406 lbs.; *joár*, 501 lbs.; tobacco, 384 lbs.; rice, 386 lbs.; gram, 433 lbs. The ordinary prices of produce per rupee (2s.) in 1882–83 were returned as follows:—Cotton, 4½ lbs.; wheat, 36 lbs.; gram, 46 lbs.; common rice, 26 lbs.; *joár*, 58 lbs.; oil-seeds, 24 lbs.; tobacco, 4 lbs. A skilled labourer received on an average 1s. 6d. per diem; an unskilled labourer, 4½d.; the hire per day of a cart and bullocks was 1s. 6d.; of a camel, 1s.; of donkeys per score, 5s. 9d.; of bullocks per pair, 9d.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of markets and fairs, the articles dealt in consisting of coarse cloth (dyed and undyed), grain, salt, bangles, spices. The largest market is that held every week at Kotah. Bábulgáon at its weekly market, and a few other places, do a large traffic in horned cattle; and during the fair at Wún, which takes place yearly about March, a considerable trade is transacted in carts, bullocks, and hardware. The principal exports consist of cotton, grain, and *ghí*. The cotton grown to the east of Yeotmál finds its way to Hinganghát in the Central Provinces; while that to the westward is bought up either at Digras or at Kárinja, by agents from Bombay. Grain of every description is exported both to the east of the Wardhá, and south of the Paingangá as far as Haidarábád. The Banjárás carry salt to the Central Provinces, and bring back rice from Dhánda in Ráipur District. The other imports are spices, *gúr*, unrefined sugar, cloth, salt, hardware, etc., from the Bombay and Nágpur markets. The rural manufactures consist of coarse cloth, coarse blankets, gunny, and sacking. At Mangrúl, glass bangles are made in a very ingenious manner, and Wún town contains some good stonemasons and carpenters. Few skilled artisans, however, can be found in the District.

Whether the coal and iron-ores, in which Wún is rich, will hereafter transform the industry of the people, is a question for the future. Since 1870, shafts have been sunk at different spots; and direct evidence of the occurrence of coal has been obtained throughout 13 miles of country from Wún to Pápur, and for 10 miles from Júnára to Chicholi, opposite Nokora. The carbonaceous character of the coal raised at Písgáon seems to prove its fitness for iron-smelting; but the pit was abandoned in August 1875, and at present the only coal-pits open in the Wardhá field are those at Warorá in Chándá District, Central Provinces. The want of means of communication is much felt in Wún District, and during the rains cart traffic is entirely suspended. The only roads are a metalled but unbridged line to

Talegáon; a road to the railway station of Chándúr, a distance of 32 miles; and an easterly line of 14 miles to Kalam. In 1882–83, the total length of roads was 86¼ miles. The passes over the ranges which traverse the District have, however, for the most part been sufficiently cleared of stones to permit the passage of carts. During the rains, the Wardhá affords means of transit by water for a short distance.

Administration.—Wún District forms part of the territory assigned by the Nizám to the British Government, under the treaties of 1853 and 1860. The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsildárs*. The gross revenue in 1882–83 was £80,691, of which the land contributed £53,441. The police are attached to 11 stations and 15 outposts. Total number of police of all grades, 417 men, being 1 policeman to every 9·3 square miles and to every 938 inhabitants. In 1882, the persons convicted of criminal offences numbered 878. In 1882–83, the average daily number of prisoners in jail was 40, of whom 2 were females. There are 5 civil and 7 criminal courts in the District; average distance of villages from nearest court, 29 miles. Education is in a backward state. Up to 1861, when education first became a State concern, learning was despised, and the teacher contemptuously termed a cattle-grazer. The number of schools in Wún District in 1883 was returned at 91, of which 48 were departmental, 35 were public institutions under private management, and 8 private elementary; the total of pupils was 3238. There is also a European school for boys and girls at Yeotmál. The Census of 1881 returned 2205 males and 14 females as under instruction, besides 5541 males and 50 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The year is divided into three seasons,—the hot, from the end of February to about the middle of June, when the rainy season sets in, and lasts till September. The cold weather occupies the intervening months till the ensuing February. Mean monthly temperature at the observatory at Yeotmál for the year 1868: —January, 65° F.; February, 70°; March, 76°; April, 86°; May, 90°; June, 88°; July, 85°; August, 81°; September, 85°; October, 81°; November, 78°; December, 73°. In 1882, the mean temperature in May was 85° F.; July, 70°; and in December, 67° F. The average annual rainfall for seventeen years ending 1881 was 41·57 inches; the rainfall in 1882 amounted to 40·9 inches. July and August are the most rainy months of the wet season; and showers frequently occur in November, December, and April. The climate of the District is enervating and unhealthy, especially from September till the middle of November, when fever of a dangerous type is very prevalent. Rheumatic fever is common during the monsoon. Except in April and May, the night air

is injurious, and almost deadly in the south of the District. Every second or third year cholera appears in an epidemic form, and nearly every year small-pox works great ravages, especially among children. In 1882–83, the number of persons vaccinated in the District was 731. Four dispensaries relieved 304 in-door and 12,390 out-door patients. Registered death-rate per thousand, 26·3. [For further information regarding Wún District, see the *Gazetteer of the Haidarábád Assigned Districts, commonly called Berar*, edited by Sir Alfred C. Lyall, K.C.B. (Education Society's Press, Bombay, 1870); also *Settlement Report of the Wún Táluk*, by Mr. R. R. Beynon, 1875; the *Berar Census Report* of 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of Berar from 1880 to 1883.]

Wún.—South-eastern *táluk* of Wún District, Berar. Area, 857 square miles, of which 214,461 acres are occupied by cultivators. Population (1881) 72,654, namely, males 36,952, and females 35,702; occupying 13,350 houses in 265 villages. Hindus number 56,218; aborigines, mostly Gonds, 14,246; Muhammadans, 2076; Jains, 112; Sikh, 1; and Christian, 1. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 4; regular police, 56 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 101. Total revenue, £13,501, of which £9723 was derived from land.

Wún.—Chief town of Wún District, Berar. Lat. 20° 3′ N., long. 79° E. Population (1881) 4207. The postal road from Haidarábád to Nágpur passes through the town, which has groves of tamarind and mango trees around it, and several tanks; it has also some fine temples. A fair is held here annually in the spring, at which an active trade in carts, bullocks, and hardware is carried on. The soil about the town is of very fine sand, which penetrates everywhere. Station-house, post-office, and English vernacular school. At Mandár, a small village south of Wún, Raghují Bhonsla in 1734 captured his kinsman Kánojí, who had disregarded the orders of the Rájá of Sátára to return to his court.

Wunala.—Petty State in the Jhálawár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WANALA.

Wunnah.—Petty State in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WANNAH.

Wursora.—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WARSORA.

Wusna.—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WASNA.

Wye.—Sub-division and town in Sátára District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WAI.

Wynád.—*Táluk* of Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* WAINAD.

Wynád, South-east. — Sub-division of Nilgiris District, Madras Presidency.—*See* WAINAD.

Y.

Yádiki.—Town in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 3′ 10″ N., long. 77° 54′ 50″ E.; situated about 13 miles south-east of Gooty. Population (1881) 6409, namely, Hindus 5577, and Muhammadans 832; occupying 1295 houses. A very irregularly built town, with some curious old temples. Sub-magistrate's court.

Yagachi (or *Badari*, the Kánarese and Sanskrit names respectively for the Zizyphus Jujuba).—River in Mysore, tributary to the Hemávati; rises in the Bábá Budan mountains in Kadúr District, and flows with a southerly course into Hassan District, where it passes the town of Belúr, and joins the Hemávati, itself a tributary of the Káveri (Cauvery), near the village of Gorúr. In Kadúr the river is crossed by 16 small anicuts or dams, irrigating 1941 acres, with a revenue of £2259. In Hassan there are 5 anicuts, from which are drawn channels with an aggregate length of 26 miles; the measured discharge of each varies from 13 to 31 cubic feet per second; the area irrigated is 673 acres, and the revenue £405.

Yalamalia (*Elumalia*).—Town in Tirumangalam *táluk*, Madura District, Madras, and chief town of Yalamalai *zamíndárí*. Population (1881) 4169, namely, Hindus, 4030; Muhammadans, 117; and Christians, 22; occupying 694 houses.

Yamkanmardi.—Municipal town in Belgáum District, Bombay; situated 21 miles north of Belgáum town, in lat. 16° 8′ N., and long. 74° 32′ E. Population (1872) 5296; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. Municipal revenue, £83. Post-office.

Yanáon (*Yánám*). — French settlement, surrounded by British territory of the Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 44′ 10″ N., long. 82° 15′ 5″ E. The *Annuaire des Etablissements Français dans l'Inde* (1885), published at the Government Press in Pondicherri, gives the area as 1429 hectares or 2258 acres, and the population as 4473. Yanáon was founded shortly before 1750, in which year it was seized by order of Nasir Jang, the Nizám. Its fortunes followed the vicissitudes of French history in Southern India. This little station, only about 3½ square miles in extent, together with a patch of land at Masulipatam, are the only traces left in this part of the peninsula of all that Bussy and Dupleix won. These, with the other French possessions in India, were secured by the treaty of 1814–15. The following description of Yanáon is taken from Morris' *Account of the Godavery District* (1878):—

'The factory of Yanáon is built at the point where the Koringa river issues from the Godávari, and is bounded by these rivers on the east and south. The territory extends along the banks of both rivers for two leagues and a half, and its breadth varies from 390 metres to 3 kilometres. The soil is very fertile. . . .

'The Chief, who is appointed by the President of the Republic, governs under the control of the Governor-General of the French possessions in India. He presides over the council instituted for the discussion of the budget. He has under his orders a priest, a head of police and other administrative affairs, a collector of taxes, who also acts as treasurer and receiver of unclaimed property, a medical man, and a registrar. The Chief fills the functions of president of the criminal court, of commerce, and of the magistracy and police. There is also a European civilian in charge of the registration of births, deaths, and marriages. The area of the territory is about 1429 hectares. The population is estimated at 5460, divided as follows: — Yanáon proper, 4221; Kanakalapetta, 441; Nettakúru, 133; Kursammapetta, 527; Adavipálem, 138. Yanáon contains 29 terraced houses, 108 tiled houses, 90 thatched houses, and some hundreds of huts. In November 1839, a terrible hurricane, accompanied by an inundation of the sea, laid the town waste, and destroyed all the official records. There are 3 schools in Yanáon—a girls' school, superintended by four nuns of Saint Joseph of Lyons, paid by the State; a school for high-caste girls, under the same superintendence; and a free school for boys for instruction in Telugu and French. The police consists of a Commissioner, a *kotwál*, a head peon, and 18 constables. There is a jail and a dispensary. The latter is supplied every six months from Pondicherri. It is under the care of the medical officer, and supplies the wants of the people of the town and neighbourhood. The medicines are given gratis to all who may require them. The average number of criminal cases a year is 16, and of civil trials, 60. The revenue for the last nine years has averaged £4550. The principal item is the import duty, which amounts to about £1750 a year.'

Yandabu (*Yendaboo*).—Town in Upper Burma; situated on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) river. Lat. 21° 38′ N., long. 95° 4′ E., about 40 miles west of Mandalay. Yandabu is of historical importance, as the place where the Treaty of Peace which concluded the first Anglo-Burmese war was signed on 26th February 1826. By this treaty the Burmese King ceded to the British the conquered Province of Tenasserim, and also renounced all claims upon Assam, and the adjoining States of Cachar, Jaintia, and Manipur. Assam passed under British rule as the result of the war; Cachar was acquired by lapse in 1830, on the death of the Rájá without heirs; the Jaintia

territories were annexed in 1835, and the Rájá deposed for complicity in the human sacrifice of British subjects. Manipur State still retains its independence.

Yan-dun (*Yandoon*).—Town in Thon-gwa District, Lower Burma. —*See* NYAUNG-DUN.

Yashwantgarh.—Fort in the Vengurla Sub-division of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* RAIRI.

Ya-theh-myo.—Ancient capital of the kingdom of Prome, Lower Burma, known also as Tha-re-khettra; about 6 miles west of Prome town, on the main road northwards to Mye-deh. The ruins of massive pagodas, and of an extensive embankment, mark the site, now overgrown with jungle, except where cleared for rice cultivation.

Yauk-thwa. — Stream which rises in the Paung-laung range in Taung-ngu District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. After a south-westerly course of about 30 miles, it falls into the Sit-taung about 6 miles north of Mun, a village in Shwe-gyin District. Navigable in the rains by boats 30 feet long as far as In-bek, but during the dry season only as far as Yauk-thwa-wa village. The river forms an outlet for timber grown in the neighbouring hills.

Yáwal.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay; situated 12 miles west of Sanda, in lat. 21° 10′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 45′ E. Population (1881) 8889, namely, Hindus, 7080; Muhammadans, 1719; and 'others,' 90. Yáwal formerly belonged to Sindhia, who gave it in grant to the Nimbalkar, one of his officers, about the year 1788. By an agreement in 1821 with the son of the grantee, the British Government obtained possession of the town. In 1837, Yáwal was restored to Sindhia, but was retaken by the British Government in 1843. The Nimbalkars provided the town, when it was in their possession, with a fort, which is still in good repair. Yáwal was once famous for its manufacture of coarse native paper, and for its indigo. Paper is still manufactured here, though only to a small extent; and there are remains of indigo vats in the neighbourhood of the town. Salt pans can also be seen about 3 miles outside Yáwal. Sub-judge's court and post-office.

Ye (*Re*). — Town in the Ye circle in the Ye-la-maing township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; situated on the northern or right bank of the Ye river not far from its mouth. The head-quarters of the township, containing a court-house, market, and circuit house. Population (1876–77) 2694; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. During the first Anglo-Burmese war Ye was occupied without resistance by a small British force despatched from Martaban after the capture of that place. A small revenue is derived from the market stall rents.

Ye (*Re*).—River in Lower Burma, rising near the Attaran, at the head of the valley formed by the Taung-nyo and Ma-hlweh Hills.

It falls into the sea in lat. 15° 5′ N., in the extreme south of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division. The stream is only navigable within the influence of the tide. Its mouth being exposed to the ocean affords no shelter, and is difficult of approach, owing to numerous rocks and reefs distant about 4 miles from the shore.

Yedator.—*Táluk* in the north of Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 168 square miles, of which 78 are cultivated. Population (1881) 59,349, namely, males 29,166, and females 30,183. Hindus number 57,261; Muhammadans, 2008; and Christians, 80. A rice-growing tract, watered by channels drawn from the Káveri (Cauvery). Areca-nut of fine quality is also produced. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 4; regular police, 45 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 270. Revenue, £13,920.

Yedator (literally, '*left bend in the river*').—Village and municipality in Mysore District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 12° 28′ 20″ N., and long. 75° 25′ 20″ E., on the right bank of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, 24 miles north-west of Mysore city. Population (1871) 1949, of whom 1593 were Hindus, 344 Muhammadans, 1 Jain, and 11 Christians. Not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. The returns furnished for the first edition of this work showed municipal revenue (1874–75), £33; rate of taxation, 4d. per head. Weekly fair held on Fridays. Here is a conspicuous temple of Arkeswara, endowed by the late Mahárájá, with bathing *ghats* leading down to the river, and an *agrahára* around.

Yedehalli.—Village in Kadúr District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 14° 39′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 57′ 20″ E., 30 miles north-west of Chikmagalúr. Population (1871) 1518; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. Head-quarters of the Lakvalli *táluk*. In the 16th century the fort was held by the Tarikere chiefs, from whom it passed into the hands of the *pálegár* of Ikkeri. It is now the residence of several wealthy merchants, being an entrepôt of through traffic between the east and west of the country.

Yedenálknád.—*Táluk* or Sub-division in the territory of Coorg, Southern India. Area, 201 square miles; number of villages, 54. Population (1881) 41,370, namely, males 24,771, and females 16,599; occupying 5477 houses. The administrative head-quarters are at VIRA-RAJENDRA-PET. Yedenálknád occupies the south centre of Coorg, running across the territory from east to west. It contains many fine rice fields, and includes the Bamboo district famous for its coffee plantations, the most productive in Coorg. The Bamboo coffee tract is one vast plantation 15 miles long and 10 broad. Most of the coffee estates on the Perimbadi *ghát* have been abandoned, owing to heavy rainfall having washed away the surface soil. There are also plantations of cinchona. The *nads* or tracts into which the *táluk*

is sub-divided are Beppunád in the north, Yedenálknád in the centre, and Amattinád in the east. Forty-seven square miles of deciduous forest, known as the Dubarí Devamachi, have recently been reserved.

Yediyúr.—Village in Túmkúr District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 59′ N., long. 76° 55′ E. Population (1871) 507; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. A religious festival, held in the month of Chaitra and lasting for five days, on the occasion of the Siddhesvarana *játra*, is annually attended by 10,000 people.

Ye-gyi (*Re-gyi*).—Creek in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. It falls into the Nga-wun or Bassein river, close to Nga-thaing-chaung, and in the rains extends eastwards and joins the Da-ga near Kyun-pyaw. At this season it is about 15 feet deep, and navigable throughout by large boats.

Ye-gyi Pan-daw (*Re-gyi Pan-daw*).—Town and head-quarters of Re-gyi township, Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 17° 19′ 50″ N., and long. 95° 10′ 20″ E., on the Ye-gyi creek. Connected with Nga-thaing-chaung by a good cart-road.

Ye-kin (*Re-keng*).—Chief town of the Ye-kin circle, Tharawadi District, Lower Burma, and head-quarters of an Assistant Commissioner; situated on the east bank of the Irawadi. Contains a market, police station, and dispensary. Population (1881) 1197.

Yelagiri.—Hill tract in Salem District, Madras Presidency, lying between 12° 31′ 20″ and 12° 37′ 49″ N. lat., and between 78° 39′ 20″ and 78° 45′ 30″ E. long.; average elevation above sea-level, 3500 feet; highest point, 4437 feet. There are 7 *malayáli* villages, with a population (1881) of 748, cultivating wheat and millet. But little timber is now left on the slopes. Fever is not so prevalent here as on the other hills of Salem.

Yelahanka.—Village and municipality in Bangalore District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 13° 6′ 10″ N., and long. 77° 38′ E., 10 miles north of Bangalore city. Population (1881) 2308. Historically interesting as the first possession of Jaya Gauda, the progenitor of the Kempe Gauda line of chiefs, who founded Bangalore, and subsequently became identified with the annals of Magadi and Savandrúg. A car festival, held for ten days in honour of Venugopala in the month of Chaitra, is annually attended by 2000 persons. Until 1871, head-quarters of Yelahanka *táluk*, now incorporated with Bangalore *táluk*. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £47.

Ye-la-maing (*Re-la-máing*).—Township in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; extends along the coast, which is fringed with rocks and small islets. It is watered chiefly by the YE river, the valley of which is very fertile. The township comprises 8

revenue circles. Population (1881) 14,764; land revenue, £2557; and capitation tax, £1513.

Yelamanchili (*Elamanchili*).—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Sarvassiddhi *táluk*. Population (1881) 4649, namely, Hindus, 4549; Muhammadans, 93; and Christians, 7; occupying 1000 houses.

Yelándur.—*Táluk* in the south-east of Mysore District, Mysore State, forming the *jágír* granted to the Díwán Púrnaiya by the British in 1807, and now held by his great-grandson. Area, 73½ square miles. Population (1881) 28,104, namely, males 13,691, and females 14,413. Hindus number 27,287; Muhammadans, 816; and Christian, 1. Said to have been selected by Púrnaiya on account of its unfailing supply of water; and because, while not far from the capital, it was out of the way of officials and travellers. On the east, it is bordered by the Biligiri-rangan hills. The rest is watered by the Honnu-hole or Suvarnati river, crossed by an anicut or dam at Ganganúr, from which 6 channels are drawn off, feeding 17 large and 11 small tanks. About one-half of the cultivated land is occupied by 'wet' crops, of which two are in some places raised in the year. Much sugar-cane and mulberry are grown, but the cultivation of the latter plant has greatly decreased in recent years owing to disease among the silk-worms.

Yelandúr.—Town in Mysore District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 12° 4′ N., and long. 77° 5′ E., on the Honnu-hole river. Head-quarters of the Yelandúr *jágír* and *táluk*. Population (1871) 3130; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. The seat of a wealthy principality in the time of the Vijayanagar sovereigns. A temple of Gauresvára has an inscription dated 1568. Yelandúr is now a thriving place, and contains a handsome house of the *jágírdár*.

Yellamala (*Yerramala*, 'Red Hills').—Range of mountains in Karnúl and Cuddapah Districts, Madras Presidency, lying between 14° 31′ and 14° 57′ 40″ N. lat., and between 78° 10′ and 78° 32′ 30″ E. long. The range runs north-west across the Jammalamadugu *táluk* in Cuddapah, and thence north through Karnúl nearly to the Domal valley. Its length is from 60 to 70 miles; greatest width, about 20 miles; average elevation, 1600 feet above sea-level. The following account of the hills is given in Mr. Gribble's *Cuddapah District Manual*:—'Near Proddatúr, a line of hills commences, and runs parallel to the hills which form the Pulivendla boundary. The boundary hills are the Yerramalas, and the parallel line of hills just mentioned is also included under the same name, although separated from them by a broad valley. This latter line of hills has no distinctive name of its own; and I propose to call them the Gandikota Hills, from the hill fort which commands the narrow pass through which the Pennar (Ponniyár)

finds passage, and which forms the most distinctive feature of this portion of the range. These hills are not lofty, but are in some parts covered with thick jungle. They are inhabited by Chenchuwars or Korachuvándlu. Where the hills are more thickly wooded and are thrown together in wild confused masses, the scenery is grand; especially so at that portion where the Pennar rushes through a narrow gorge and emerges at the old fort of Gandikota.' The North-west line of the Madras Railway crosses this range.—*See* also GANDIKOT.

Yellápur.—Sub-division of North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. The east and north-east of the Sub-division are bordered by plain country. But except a few detached fields and gardens, the greater part is forest. The west is full of forest-clad hills, occasionally crossed by streams and watercourses. In the valleys and along the sides of the watercourses are rice and sugar-cane fields, as well as areca-nut and cocoa-nut palm gardens. The south, which is also hilly, is fertile, and where water is available, possesses excellent areca-nut and cocoa-nut palm gardens. The chief rivers are the Bedti and Kálínadi, which are joined by many small streams. During the hot weather, the water of most of them becomes bad. The settlement of the Sub-division lasted from 1866 to 1881. The result was to raise the assessment from £5703 to £9298, that is, an increase of 63·03 per cent. The highest survey garden rates vary from £1 to £1, 8s. an acre; rice rates from 7s. to 10s.; and dry crop rates from 1s. to 2s. Area, 589 square miles. Population (1881) 36,314, namely, males 19,977, and females 16,337; occupying 6562 houses in 153 villages. Hindus number 31,377; Muhammadans, 3446; and 'others,' 1491. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 4 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 83 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 60. Land revenue, £9559.

Yellápur.—Town in North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency, head-quarters of Yellápur Sub-division, and of the Conservator of Forests, Southern Division. Lat. 14° 58′ N., long. 74° 45′ E. Population (1881) 2048. Dispensary, travellers' bungalow, post-office, and school. Kannigeri, 3 miles north of Yellápur, has a steam sawmill under a Sub-Assistant Conservator of Forests.

Yelsavirshime (or *Yelusavirasime*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division in the territory of Coorg, Southern India.—*See* YELUSAVIRA.

Yelusavirá (or *Yelusavirasime, Yelsavirshime*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division in the territory of Coorg, Southern India. Area, 91 square miles. Population (1881) 16,411, namely, males 8174, and females 8237; occupying 3488 houses in 167 villages. Yelusavirá occupies the extreme north-east corner of Coorg, and in population and products resembles the adjoining State of Mysore, from which it was conquered

by Rájá Dodda Virappa at the end of the 17th century. The minor fiscal divisions are called *hóblís*, as in Mysore, and not *náds*, as in the rest of Coorg. The inhabitants for the most part live in villages, and not scattered through the country in separate homesteads. Malambi hill, 4488 feet high, stands out prominently in the landscape of the *táluk*. Rice is the staple; a little coffee is grown. Ten square miles of forest area have recently been reserved.

Yemiganúr (*Emiganúr*).—Town in Adoni *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 46′ N., long. 77° 31′ 20″ E.; situated about 14 miles north-east of Adoni town. Population, with the hamlet of Majara Venkatápuram (1881), 6963, namely, Hindus, 5633; Muhammadans, 1322; and 'others,' 8; occupying 1134 houses. The town is well built and clean, and is the station of a sub-magistrate; it was once noted for its weaving.

Yendaboo.—Town in Upper Burma, situated on the right bank of the Irawadi river.—*See* YANDABU.

Yenúr.—Town in South Kánara District, Madras. Lat. 13° 1′ 30″ N., long. 75° 11′ 5″ E. Population (1871) 442, inhabiting 88 houses. An old Jain town, containing a large monolithic statue, 38 feet high, of the same kind as the Jain statues at Srávana Belgola (in Mysore) and Kárkala (in South Kánara).

Yeola.—One of the southern Sub-divisions of Násik District, Bombay Presidency. Except a few small barren hills, the Sub-division is generally flat; and the soil is poor and stony, save in the south-west, where it is very fertile. The highest point in the Sub-division is the hill of Ankai in the north, which rises 3182 feet above sea-level. The agricultural wealth of the Sub-division is small. Water is scanty, especially in the northern villages which lie near the water-parting of the Girná and the Godávari. Area, 412 square miles. Population (1881) 53,282, namely, males 27,154, and females 26,128; occupying 9185 houses, in 1 town and 117 villages. Hindus number 43,385; Muhammadans, 6372; and 'others,' 3525. In 1880–81, 3093 holdings or *khátás* were recorded with an average area of 46¾ acres, paying an average assessment of £4, 6s. 9d. In 1880–81, 100,516 acres were under actual cultivation, of which 390 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 91,491 acres; pulses, 7696 acres; oil-seeds, 766 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 953 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circle (*tháná*), 1; regular police, 52 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 130. Land revenue, £4478.

Yeola.—Chief town of the Yeola Sub-division of Násik District, Bombay Presidency, and a station on the Dhond-Manmád State Railway. Situated in lat. 20° 4′ 10″ N., and long. 74° 30′ 30″ E., 44 miles east of Násik town, 13 miles south of Manmád station (161 miles

from Bombay) on the north-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and nearly 12 miles from the frontier, on its south-east, of the Nizám's Dominions. Population (1881) 17,685, namely, males 8975, and females 8710. Hindus number 12,191; Muhammadans, 4972; Jains, 444; Párs'ís, 2; and 'others,' 76. Municipality, established in 1858, had in 1883–84 an income of £2689; incidence of taxation, 2s. 9d. per head. Sub-judge's court, post-office, and dispensary.

Yeola owes its importance to its trade in the silk and cotton goods woven here, and also to its gold-twist manufacture. The silk trade employs about 7000 persons of both sexes. About £20,000 of raw silk, and the same value of silk thread, are yearly imported. The exports amount to £50,000 of silk cloth, and about the same value of silk thread. There is a considerable manufacture of gold and silver wire and thread, for which about £150 of gold and £2000 of silver are imported every year. These manufactures employ about 3500 people. In 1876 the total exports were valued at £150,000. At the time of its foundation, Yeola was under the Emperor of Delhi; subsequently it passed into the hands of the Rájás of Sátára, and then the Peshwás. Mádhu Ráo Peshwá finally gave it in grant with numerous other villages to Vithal, the ancestor of the present chief of Vinchur. He still enjoys the revenue derived from the lands attached to the town of Yeola, but has no authority within the town. Yeola is surrounded by a dilapidated mud wall.

Yeotmál.—*Táluk* of Wún District, Berar. Area, 909 square miles, of which 306,958 acres are under cultivation. Population (1881) 107,846, namely, males 55,877, and females 51,969; occupying 19,690 houses. Hindus number 102,304; Muhammadans, 4749; Jains, 657; Christians, 124; Sikhs, 9; and Párs'ís, 3. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 4 civil and 4 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 181 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 152. Total revenue, £23,996, of which £1475 was derived from land.

Yeotmál.—Village in Wún District, Berar, and head-quarters of Yeotmál *táluk;* situated 58 miles north-west of Wún town, and 46 miles south-east of Amráotí. Population not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881.

Yerkád (*Erkád, Yercaud*).—Sanitarium and town in Salem *táluk*, Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 51′ 38″ N., long. 78° 13′ 5″ E. The principal and oldest station in the Shevaroy Hills, 4828 feet above sea-level, and the head-quarters of the Sub-Magistrate and other civil officers. Population (1881) 1338, namely, Christians, 680; Hindus, 636; and Muhammadans, 22; occupying 240 houses. There are about 60 or 70 permanent European and Eurasian residents, but in the hot weather this number is greatly increased by visitors from Madras and Salem. Good hotels, 1 church, 2 chapels, a Dissenters'

meeting-house, a dispensary, and other conveniences for visitors. The European houses are surrounded by flourishing coffee-gardens. The distance from Salem is 14 miles, and from Shevaroy hills station, on the South-west line of the Madras Railway, 12 miles. This railway station is 3 miles from the foot of the hills. The climate is mild and pleasant, the temperature averaging about 14° F. less than on the plains. At a certain season of the year, fever of a mild type prevails. The scenery about Yerkád, and the views of the plains and the neighbouring ranges, are of great variety and beauty.

Yernagúdem (*Ernagúdem*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Area, 1107 square miles. Population (1881) 159,364, namely, males 80,160, and females 79,204; occupying 29,574 houses in 192 villages. Hindus number 155,312; Muhammadans, 3927; Christians, 121; and 'others,' 4. The surface of the *táluk* is rocky and jungly in most parts, but level towards the south and near the Godávari. Part of the *táluk* is irrigated by the Ellore Canal. Trade in cotton, grain, oil-seeds, and timber. Chief products, rice, gram, cereals, and gingelly. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 24; regular police, 251 men. Land revenue, £18,307.

Yernagúdem (*Ernagúdem*).—Village in Godávari District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Yernagúdem *táluk*; situated on the road from Bezwára to Rájámahendri, about 18 miles west of Rájámahendri. Population (1881) 2255, namely, Hindus 2192, and Muhammadans 63; occupying 446 houses.

Yerramala.—Range of mountains in Karnúl and Cuddapah Districts, Madras Presidency.—*See* YELLAMALA.

Ye-su-daing (*Re-tsu-daing*).—Tidal creek in Thon-gwa District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. After its junction with the Pi-pa-lut, it is called the Peh-mut, and a little lower down it receives the waters of the Kyun-pya-that (more correctly the Kyun-bura-thad), and thenceforward assumes the name of that river. In about lat. 17° N. it sends off to the southward a large branch, which, as the To or China Bakir, reaches the sea 20 miles west-south-west of the Hlaing or Rangoon river.

Yettumanúr.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 140 square miles. Population (1875) 76,890; (1881) 79,058, namely, males 39,446, and females 39,612; occupying 16,554 houses in 76 *karas* or villages. Density of population, 564·7 persons per square mile. Hindus number 51,176; Christians, 27,265; and Muhammadans, 617. Of the Christians, Syrians number 23,467; Roman Catholics, 3622; and Protestants, 176.

Yoma or Roma Hills.—Two ranges of mountains in Burma. The first and most important, known as the Arakan Yomas, is a prolonga-

tion from the great congeries of mountains of South-eastern Assam. Starting from the BLUE MOUNTAIN, in lat. 22° 37′ N., and long. 93° 10′ E., this range runs southwards for a distance of over 700 miles, dividing Arakan from Upper Burma in the north, and from the Province of Pegu in the south. The chain, though of considerable height in the north (Blue Mountain, 7100 feet), gradually diminishes in altitude and breadth, till it sinks into the sea at Cape Negrais, the last bluff being crowned by the Hmaw-din pagoda. Several passes cross the range, the chief being the An or Aeng Pass into the Irawadi valley. The Pegu Yoma range separates the valleys of the Sit-taung (Tsit-toung) and Salwín. It starts from Yek-me-thin in Upper Burma, and runs southwards to near the head of the Irawadi delta, where it branches out into several low terminal hills, the extremity of one being crowned by the holy building of Burmese Buddhism, the famous Shwe-Dagon pagoda.

Yun-za-lin (*Rwon-za-leng*).—River in the Tenasserim Division of Lower Burma, which rises to the north of the mountainous country forming the Salwín Hill Tracts. It flows nearly due south through a narrow rocky valley as far as Kaw-ka-rit, where it joins the SALWIN. With a rapid current, it is, even in dry weather, navigable only with difficulty; and when swollen by the rains, and dashing against the rocks which impede its course, it becomes impracticable even for rafts. It derives its name from the fact of its running through a country once inhabited by the tribe of Yun (more correctly Rwun) Shans, which was overrun and annexed by Alaungpaya in the latter half of the 18th century. Many of the people were brought away captive, and settled in a tract south-east of Syriam, now known as the Yun circle.

Yusafzai.—Sub-division of Peshawar District, Punjab, lying to the north of the Kábul river, and consisting of the two *tahsíls* of Mardán and Utmán Bolak. The term Yusafzai, properly speaking, includes the Swát and Bonair country, and other adjacent hills beyond the British border. Most of the inhabitants claim to be descendants of Yusaf, and of Mardán his nephew, the latter predominating in British territory. British Yusafzai consists of the six *tappas* or minor divisions of Báizai, Kamálzai, Amázai, Razar, Utmán, and Bolak. Báizai *tappa* formed the battle-ground between the descendants of Yusaf and Mardán. The Utmán Khel and Khattak tribe were called in on both sides as mercenaries, and ended by taking possession of the greater part of the Báizai valley themselves. The celebrated Takht-i-Bai ruins are in this *tappa*. The chief village is Lúndkhur. Communication with Swát is kept up through the Mora pass. The villages of Mardán and Hoti are in the Kamálzai *tappa*. The Amázai *tappa* is surrounded on three sides by hills; it is often called the Sadhum valley, and is watered by the Makám river. The

chief village is Rústam, at which there is a police station. The people of Razar *tappa* are all descendants of Mardán, and are divided into several small clans. It contains several large villages, and a police station at Kalu Khán. The chief village of Utmán is Swábi, which contains a *tahsíli* and police station. Bolak *tappa* is entirely Khattak, and does not properly belong to Yusafzai at all, having been joined to it at the time of settlement for financial reasons. Besides the Makám river, the Sub-division is watered by another considerable stream, the Kalpáni, which takes its rise in the Mora pass, flows past Mardán and Hoti villages, is afterwards joined by the Makám, and finally falls into the Kábul river opposite Naushahra cantonment. Mounds are scattered over the whole tract, evidently the sites of ancient villages, still abounding in fragments of pottery and bricks. The soil consists of a fine alluvial deposit, covered in large part with luxuriant verdure. The crops are dependent upon an uncertain rainfall, but there is a certain amount of irrigation from wells. The Swát River Canal, opened in 1882, will afford ample irrigation facilities.

Area of Yusafzai Sub-division, 1097 square miles, with 207 villages, 28,877 houses, and 37,855 families. Population (1881) 191,243, namely, males 101,488, and females 89,755. Average density of the population, 174·3 persons per square mile. Muhammadans number 182,646; Hindus, 8089; Sikhs, 480; and Christians, 28. Of the 207 villages, 103 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 35 between five hundred and a thousand; 63 between one and three thousand; and 6 between three and five thousand. The average cultivated area for the five years from 1877–78 to 1881–82 was 422 square miles, or 270,467 acres; the principal crops being—wheat, 87,773 acres; barley, 75,974 acres; Indian corn, 30,411 acres; *moth*, 29,132 acres; *joár*, 18,299 acres; sugar-cane, 3610 acres; cotton, 2080 acres; and tobacco, 2285 acres. Revenue of the Sub-division, £17,044. The administrative staff consists of an Assistant Commissioner stationed at Mardán, and 2 *tahsíldárs*. These officers preside over 3 civil and 3 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 6; strength of regular police, 80 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 330.

Ywa-taung (*Rwa-toung*).—Town in the Ywa-taung circle, now a suburb of ALLAN-MYO; situated in lat. 19° 19′ 20″ N., and long. 95° 18′ 45″ E., on the left bank of the Irawadi, just opposite the Thayetmyo cantonment. Station of an extra-Assistant Commissioner. Ywataung contains a market and school; small police force. Population (1881) 2759.

Ywe (*Rwe*).—One of the mouths of the Irawadi, the chief river of Burma. Formed by the junction of the Pu-lu (a branch of the

Mvaung-mya) with the Saga-mya, in about lat. 16° 33′ N., and long. 95° 8′ E. Lower down, the Ywe is connected with the Pya-ma-law and the Bassein, another branch of the Irawadi, by a series of inter-communicating creeks. Its course is south-south-west, length about 60 miles. Navigable by river steamers at all seasons.

Z.

Zafarábád.—Village in Kaliánpur *tahsíl*, Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 0′ 44″ N., long. 80° 33′ 4″ E., on the Grand Trunk Road, 10 miles from Fatehpur town. Population (1881) 2251; prevailing caste, Kurmís. A station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey.

Zafarwál.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Siálkot (Sealkote) District, Punjab; consisting for the most part of a fertile submontane belt, watered by percolation from the hill streams. A dry and treeless ridge, however, occupies one portion of the *tahsíl*. Area, 302 square miles, with 482 villages, 19,428 houses, and 32,454 families. Population (1881) 163,190, namely, males 85,915, and females 77,275. Muhammadans number 101,414; Hindus, 59,172; Sikhs, 2472; Jains, 82; and Christians, 50. Of the 482 villages, 398 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 61 from five hundred to a thousand; 21 from one to three thousand; and 2 from three to five thousand. Area under cultivation for the five years from 1877–78 to 1881–82, 226 square miles, or 144,646 acres; principal crops—wheat, 53,491 acres; barley, 19,619 acres; Indian corn, 11,170 acres; rice, 10,293 acres; *joár*, 9821 acres; sugar-cane, 9837 acres; and cotton, 4414 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £19,137. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and a *munsif*, presiding over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 46 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 412.

Zafarwál.—Town and municipality in Siálkot District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 32° 22′ N., and long. 74° 54′ E., on the east bank of the river Degh, 25 miles south-east of Siálkot town, on the road to the foot of the hills below Dalhousie. Population (1881) 4978, namely, Hindus, 2731; Muhammadans, 2203; Sikhs, 10; and Christians, 34. Number of houses, 792. Municipal income (1883–84), £341, or an average of 1s. 5d. per head. Zafarwál was founded, according to tradition, by one Jafar Khán, a Bajwa Ját, to whom it owes its name, about four centuries ago. Narrow and tortuous streets, paved with brick. Trade in local produce, chiefly sugar and grain. Temple,

rest-house for travellers, *tahsíl*, *thánd*, dispensary, post-office, and school.

Záidpur.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 49′ 45″ N., long. 81° 22′ 20″ E. Founded about 400 years ago by Sayyad Zaid. Population (1881) 9181, namely, Muhammadans 5964, and Hindus 3217. Number of houses, 1959. Large manufacture of country cloth. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Za-lun.—Township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. Divided into two very unequal portions by the river Irawadi. Head-quarters at Za-lun town.

Za-lun.—Town in the Za-lun township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 17° 27′ N., and long. 95° 37′ 55″ E., on the right bank of the Irawadi. Contains the usual civil buildings. The river is rapidly encroaching on the town, and in 1879 the *bázár* was pulled down in order to save the materials. Close to the town is a sacred image that was carried off by the British during or after the second Anglo-Burmese war, but was subsequently returned. Population (1881) 2796.

Zamániah.—Southern *tahsíl* of Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of Zamániah and Maháich *parganás*, comprising the whole portion of the District lying south of the Ganges—a lowland strip along the river bank, with an alluvial upland behind. Area 379 square miles, of which 290 square miles are returned as cultivated, 22 square miles as cultivable, and 67 square miles as barren waste. Population (1881) 225,949, namely, males 109,943, and females 116,006. Hindus number 198,002; Muhammadans, 27,703; and Christians, 244. Of the 334 towns and villages, 206 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 73 between five hundred and a thousand; 44 between one and three thousand; 4 between three and five thousand; and 7 upwards of five thousand. Government land revenue, £24,128, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £27,696. Rental paid by cultivators, £50,635. In 1884 the *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal court; 3 police circles (*thánás*); a regular police force numbering 49 men; and a village police or rural watch of 388 *chaukidárs*.

Zamániah.—Town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Zamániah *tahsíl*; lies in lat. 25° 25′ 2″ N., and long. 83° 35′ 50″ E., on the right or south bank of the Ganges, 10 miles from Gházípur town, and 2 miles from Zamániah station on the East Indian Railway. Population (1881) 5116, namely, Muhammadans 3129, and Hindus 1987. Large trade in grain. Besides the ordinary Sub-divisional courts and offices, the town contains a police station and a village school.

Za-mi.—River in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. Rises in the main range of the Yomas, near the Pass of the Three Pagodas, in lat. 15° 18′ N., and long. 98° 25′ 29″ E., and flows for about 80 miles in a general north-north-west direction, till it joins the Winraw. The united stream, under the name of the ATTARAN, falls into the Salwín at Maulmain.

Zamkha.—Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency.—*See* ZUMKHA.

Za-tha-byin.—Village in Za-tha-byin revenue circle, and head-quarters of the Gyaing Than-lwin township, Amherst District, Lower Burma. Court-house and police station. Population (1878) 2160; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881.

Ze-ya-wa-dí. — Township in Taung-ngu District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. Population (1881) 31,189; gross revenue, £5371.

Zírá—*Tahsíl* of Firozpur District, Punjab; consisting throughout of a dreary plain, undiversified by hill or valley, but largely irrigated by inundation canals. Area, 500 square miles, with 344 towns and villages, 18,319 houses, and 36,658 families. Population (1881) 164,548, namely, males 89,047, and females 75,501. Average density of population, 329 persons per square mile. Muhammadans number 107,555; Hindus, 30,815; Sikhs, 25,840; and Jains, 338. Of the 344 towns and villages, 245 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 68 between five hundred and a thousand; 28 between one and three thousand; 2 between three and five thousand; and 1 between five and ten thousand. The average cultivated area for the five years from 1877–78 to 1881–82 is returned at 390 square miles, or 249,353 acres; the principal crops being—wheat, 116,102 acres; Indian corn, 37,854 acres; barley, 24,858 acres; gram, 19,290 acres; *joár*, 10,268 acres; *moth*, 3138 acres; rice, 1447 acres; cotton, 7516 acres; tobacco, 1988 acres; and vegetables, 3494 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £15,486. The local administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and a *munsif*, presiding over 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 5; strength of regular police, 66 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 249.

Zírá.—Town and municipality in Firozpur District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Zírá *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 30° 58′ N., long. 75° 2′ 25″ E., on the unmetalled road from Firozpur to Lúdhiána, 26 miles from Firozpur town. Population (1881) 3492, namely, Muhammadans, 1990; Hindus, 1115; Jains, 202; and Sikhs, 185. Number of houses, 575. Municipal income (1883–84), £234, or an average of 1s. 4d. per head. Zírá is a small but well-built town, and owes a much improved appearance to the numerous gardens planted since the construction of the inundation canal, which passes through the town. It

has two *bázárs*, and besides the usual *tahsíli* courts and offices, cont a police station, school-house, dispensary, small municipal hall, *saráí* or native inn, with separate accommodation for Europ travellers.

Zumkhá.—Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Gujarát, Bombay Pi dency. Area, 1 square mile. The revenue is estimated at £1 tribute is paid of £5, 2s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chie named Baria Bichar Singh.

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